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An ACCOUNT of the late EARTHQUAKES in Calabria, Sicily, &c.

Communicated to the ROYAL SOCIETY by Sir WILLIAM HAMILTON.

Naples, May 23. 1783.

I AM happy now to have it in my power to give you, and my brethren of the Royal Society, ſome little idea of the infinite damage done, and of the various phenomena exhibited, by the earthquakes (which began the 5th of February laſt, and continue to be ſenſibly, though leſs violently, felt to this day) in the two Calabrias, at Meſſina, and in the parts of Sicily neareſt to the continent. From the moſt authentic reports, and accounts received at the offices of his Sicilian Majeſty's Secretary of State, we gathered in general, that the part of Calabria which has been moſt affected by this heavy calamity, is that which is comprehended between the 38th and 39th degree; that the greateſt force of the earthquakes ſeemed to have exerted itſelf from the foot of thoſe mountains of the Appennines called the Monte Deio, Monte Sacro, and Monte Caulone, extending weſtward to the Tyrrhene ſea; that the towns, villages, and farm-houſes, neareſt theſe mountains, ſituated either on hills or on the plain, were totally ruined by the firſt ſhock of the 5th of February, about noon; and that the greateſt mortality was there; that, in

proportion as the towns and villages were at a greater diſtance from this center, the damage they received was leſs conſiderable; but that even thoſe more diſtant towns had been greatly damaged by the ſubſequent ſhocks of the earthquake, and eſpecially by thoſe of the 7th, the 16th, and 28th of February, and that of the 1ſt of March; that from the firſt ſhock, the 5th of February, the earth continued to be in a continual tremour, more or leſs; and that the ſhocks were more ſenſibly felt at times in ſome parts of the afflicted provinces than in others; that the motion of the earth had been various, and, according to the Italian denomination, *vorticoſo*, *orizontale* and *oſcillatorio*, either whirling like a vortex horizontal, or by pulſations, or beating from the bottom upwards; that this variety of motion had increaſed the apprehenſions of the unfortunate inhabitants of thoſe parts, who expected every moment that the earth would open under their feet, and ſwallow them up; that the rains had been continual and violent, often accompanied with lightning, and irregular and furious guſts of wind; that from all theſe cauſes the face of the earth of that part of Calabria (comprehended as above mentioned between the 38th and the 39th degrees) was entirely altered, particularly on the weſtward ſide of the mountains above named; that many openings and cracks had been made in thoſe parts; that ſome hills had been lowered, and others quite levelled; that in the plains deep chaſms had been made, by which many roads were rendered impaſſable; that huge mountains had been ſplit aſunder, and parts of them driven to a conſiderable diſtance; that deep vallies had been filled up by the mountains (which formed thoſe vallies) having been detached by the violence of the earthquakes, and joined together; that the courſe of ſome rivers had been altered; that many ſprings of water had appeared in places that were perfectly dry before; and that in other parts, ſprings that had been conſtant had totally diſappeared; that near Laureana, in Calabria Ultra, a ſingular phenomenon had been produced; that the ſurface of two whole tenements, with large olive and mulberry trees therein, ſituated in a valley perfectly level, had been detached by the earthquake, and tranſplanted, the trees ſtill remaining in their places, to the diſtance of about a mile from their firſt ſituations; and that from the ſpot on which they formerly ſtood, hot water had ſprung up to a conſiderable height, mixed with ſand of a ferruginous nature; that near this place alſo ſome countrymen and ſhepherds had been ſwallowed up, with their teams of oxen, and their flocks of goats and ſheep; in ſhort, that beginning from the city of Amantea, ſituated on the coaſt of the Tyrrhene ſea in Calabria Citra, and going along the weſtward coaſt to Cape Spartivento, in Calabria Ultra, and then up the eaſtern coaſt as far as the Cape d'Alice (a part of Calabria Citra on the Ionian ſea), there is not a town or village, either on the coaſt or land, but what is either totally deſtroyed, or has ſuffered more or leſs, amounting in all to near 400, what are called here *paeſe*, (a village containing leſs than 100 inhabitants is not counted as a paeſe).

The greateſt mortality fell upon thoſe towns and countries ſituated in the plain, on the weſtern ſide of the mountains Dejo, Sacro, and Caulone. At Caſal Nuovo, the Princeſs Gerace, and upwards of 4000 of the inhabitants, loſt their lives; at Bagnara, the number of dead amounts to 3017; Radicina and Palmi count their loſs at about 3000 each; Terrannova about 1400; Seminari ſtill more. The ſum-total of the mortality in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes alone, according to the returns in the Secretary of State's office at Naples, is 32,367; but I have good reaſon to believe, that, including ſtrangers, the number of lives loſt muſt have been conſiderably greater; 40,000 at leaſt may be allowed, and, I believe, without any exaggeration.

From the ſame office-intelligence we likewiſe heard, that the inhabitants of Scilla on the firſt ſhock of the earthquake, the 5th of February, had eſcaped from their houſes on the rock, and, following the example of their Prince, taken ſhelter on the ſea ſhore; but that in the night-time, the ſame ſhock which had raiſed and agitated the ſea ſo violently, and done ſo much damage on the point of the Faro of Meſſina, had acted with ſtill greater violence there, for that the wave (which was repreſented to have been boiling hot, and that many people had been ſcalded by its riſing to a great height) went furiouſly three miles inland, and ſwept off, in its return, 2473 of the inhabitants of Scilla, with the Prince at their head, who were at that time

time either on the Scilla ſtrand, or in boats near the ſhore.

All accounts agreed, that of the number of ſhocks which have been felt ſince the beginning of this formidable earthquake, amounting to ſome hundreds, the moſt violent, and of the longeſt duration, were thoſe of the 5th of February, at 19 1-half (according to the Italian way of counting the hours); of the 6th of February, at 7 hours in the night; of the 27th of February at 11 1 quarter in the morning; of the 1ſt of March, at 8 1 half in the night; and that of the 28th of March, at 11 1 half in the night. It was this laſt ſhock that affected moſt the upper part of Calabria Ultra, and the lower part of the Citra, an authentic deſcription of which you will ſee hereafter, in a letter which I received from the Marquis Ippolito, an accurate obſerver, reſiding at Catanzaro in the Upper Calabria. The firſt and the laſt ſhocks muſt have been tremendous indeed, and only theſe two were ſenſibly felt in this capital.

The accounts which this government has received from the province of Coſenza, are leſs melancholy than thoſe from the province of Calabria Ultra. From Cape Suvero to the Cape of Cetraro, on the weſtern coaſt, the inland countries, as well as thoſe on the coaſt, are ſaid to have ſuffered more or leſs in proportion to their proximity to the ſuppoſed centre of the earthquakes; and it has been conſtantly obſerved, that its greateſt violence has been exerted, and ſtill continues to be ſo, on the weſtern ſide of the Appennines, preciſely the celebrated Sila of the ancient Brutii, and that all thoſe countries ſituated to the eaſtward of the Sila had felt the ſhocks of the earthquake, but without having received any damage from them. In the province of Coſenza there does not appear to be above 100 lives loſt. In the laſt accounts from the moſt afflicted part of Calabria Ultra, two ſingular phenomena are mentioned. At about the diſtance of three miles from the ruined city of Oppido, there was a hill (the ſoil of which was a ſandy clay) about 500 palms high, and 1300 in circumference at its baſis. It was ſaid that this hill, by the ſhock of the 6th of February, jumped to the diſtance of about four miles from the ſpot where it ſtood, into a plain, called the Campo di Baſſano. At the ſame time, the hill on which the town of Oppido ſtood, which extended about three miles, divided into two, and as its ſituation was between two rivers, its ruins filled up the valley, and ſtopped the courſe of thoſe rivers; two great lakes are already formed, and are daily increaſing, which lakes, if means are not found to drain them, and give the rivers their due courſe, in a ſhort time muſt infect the air greatly.

From Sicily the accounts of the moſt ſerious nature were thoſe of the deſtruction of the greateſt part of the noble city of Meſſina, of the ſhock of the 5th of February, and of the remaining parts by the ſubſequent ones; that the kay in the port had ſunk conſiderably, and was, in ſome places, a palm and a half under water; that the ſuperb building, called the Palazzata, which gave the port a more magnificent appearance than any port in Europe can boaſt of, had been entirely ruined; that the Lazaret had been greatly damaged; but that the citadel had ſuffered little; that the Mother Church had fallen; in ſhort, that Meſſina was no more; that the tower at the point of the entrance of the Faro was half deſtroyed; and that the ſame hot wave that had done ſuch miſchief at Scilla, had paſſed over the point of land at the Faro, and carried off about 24 people. The Viceroy of Sicily likewiſe gave an account of ſome damage done by the earthquakes, but nothing conſiderable, at Melazzo, Patti, Terra di Santa, Lucia, Caſtro Reale, and in the iſland of Lipari.

This, Sir, was the intelligence I was poſſeſſed of at the end of laſt month; but as I am particularly curious, as you know, on the ſubject of volcanoes, and was perſuaded in my own mind (from the preſent earthquakes being confined to one ſpot) that ſome great chemical operation of nature, of the volcanic ſort, was the real cauſe of them; in order to clear up many points, and to come at truth, which you alſo well know, Sir, is exceeding difficult, I took the ſudden reſolution to employ about twenty days (which was as much as I could allow, and have time to be out of Italy, in my way home, before the heats ſet in) in making the tour of ſuch parts of Calabria Ultra and Sicily as had been, and were ſtill moſt affected by the earthquakes, and examining with my own eyes the phenomena above mentioned. I accordingly hired for that purpoſe a Malteſe Speronara for myſelf, and a Neapolitan felucca for my ſervants, and

left Naples the 2d of May. I was furniſhed, by command of his Sicilian Majeſty, with ample paſſports, and orders to the commanding officers of the different provinces, to give me every aſſiſtance and protection in the purſuit of my object. I had a pleaſant voyage in my Malteſe Speronara (which are excellent boats, and the boatmen very ſkilful) along the coaſt of the Principato Citra and Calabria Citra, after having paſſed the gulph of Policaſtro. At Cedraro, I found the firſt ſymptoms of the earthquake, ſome of the principal inhabitants of that city having quitted their houſes, and living in new-erected barracks, though not a houſe in the whole town, as I could ſee, had ſuffered. At St Lucido I perceived that the Baron's palace and the church-ſteeple had ſuffered, and that moſt of the inhabitants were in barracks. The barracks are juſt ſuch ſort of buildings as the booths of our country fairs, though indeed many I have ſeen are more like our pig-ſtyes. As my object was to get as faſt as poſſible to the centre of the miſchief, having little time, and much to ſee, I contented myſelf with a diſtant view of Maida, Nicaſtro, and Santo Eufemia, and puſhed on to the town of Pizzo, in Calabria Ultra, where I landed on the evening of the 6th of May. This town, ſituated on the ſea, and on a volcanic cuſſa *, had been greatly damaged by the earthquake of the 5th of February, but was completely ruined by that of the 28th of March. As the inhabitants of this town (amounting to about 5000) had ſufficient warning, and had left their houſes, and taken to barracks on the firſt ſhock, the 5th of February, the mortality on the 28th of March was inconſiderable; but, from the barracks having been ill conſtructed, and many ſituated in a very confined unwholeſome ſpot, an epidemical diſorder had taken place, and carried off many, and was ſtill in fatal force whilſt I was there, in ſpite of the wiſe endeavours of government to ſtop its progreſs. I fear, as the heats increaſe, the ſame misfortune will attend many parts of the unfortunate Calabria, as alſo the city of Meſſina. The inhabitants of Pizzo ſeemed to me to have habituated themſelves already to their preſent inconvenient manner of living; and ſhops of every kind were opened in the ſtreets of the barracks, which, except ſome few, are but poorly conſtructed. I was aſſured here, that the volcano of Stromboli, which is oppoſite, and in full view of this town, and at the diſtance of about fifty miles, had ſmoked leſs, and thrown up a leſs quantity of inflamed matter during the earthquakes, than it had done for ſome years paſt; that ſlight ſhocks continued to be felt daily; and the night I ſlept here, on board the Speronara drawn on ſhore, I was awakened with a ſmart one, which ſeemed to lift up the bottom of the boat; but it was not attended with any ſubterraneous noiſe. My ſervants, in the other boat, felt the ſame. The next day I ordered my boats to proceed to Reggio, and I went on horſeback to Monteleone, about ſix miles from Pizzo, up-hill, on a road of looſe ſtones and clay, ſcarcely paſſable in this ſeaſon, but through the moſt beautiful and fertile country I ever beheld: a perfect garden of olive-trees, mulberry-trees, fruit-trees, and vines; and under theſe trees the richeſt crops of corn or lupins, beans, or other vegetables, which ſeemed to thrive perfectly, though under a thick ſhade. This is the ſtyle of the whole plain of Monteleone, except that here and there are vaſt woods of oak and olive trees mixed; and the olive trees are of ſuch a ſize as I could never have conceived, being half as big as the oaks themſelves, which are fine timber-trees, and more than treble the ſize of the olive-trees of the Campagna Felice. The olive-woods, in ſome parts of the plain, are regularly planted in lines, and in others grow irregularly. Though the object of my preſent journey was merely to take a haſty view of the ſpots which had ſuffered ſo much by the calamity, my attention was continually called away, and I was loſt in the admiration of the fertility and beauty of this rich province, exceeding by many degrees (as to the firſt point) every country I have yet ſeen. Beſides the two rich products of ſilk and oil, in which this province ſurpaſſes every other, perhaps in the whole world, it abounds with corn, wine, cotton, liquorice, fruit, and vegetables of every kind; and if its population and induſtry kept pace with its fertility, the revenue of Calabria Ultra might ſurely be more than doubled in a ſhort time. I ſaw whole groves of mulberry-trees, the owners of which told me, did not let for more than 5s. an

* This was the only token of former volcanic exploſions that I met with in Calabria.

an acre, when every acre would be worth at leaſt 5l. had they hands to gather the leaves, and attend the ſilk-worms. The town of Monteleone, anciently Vibo Valentia, is beautifully ſituate on a hill, overlooking the ſea and the rich plains above mentioned, bounded by the Appennines, and crowned by Aſpramonte, the higheſt of them all, interſperſed with towns and villages, which, alas! are no more than heaps of ruins. The town of Monteleone ſuffered little by the firſt ſhocks of the earthquake, but was greatly damaged by that of the 28th of March, (though only twelve lives were loſt), and all the inhabitants are reduced to live in barracks, many of which are well conſtructed with either planks or reeds, covered with plaſter on the outſide. As this country has ever been ſubject to earthquakes, the Barons had uſually a barrack near their palace, to retire to on the leaſt alarm of an earthquake. I inhabited here a magnificent one, conſiſting of many rooms well furniſhed, which was built by the preſent Duke of Monteleone's grandfather. I owe the ſafety and the expedition of the very intereſting journey which I have taken through this province to this Duke's goodneſs, as he was pleaſed at Naples to furniſh me with a letter to his agent; in conſequence of which, I was not only moſt hoſpitably and elegantly treated in his barrack, and ſupplied with excellent ſure-footed horſes for myſelf and ſervant, but alſo with two of his horſe-guards, well acquainted with the croſs-roads of the country, without which it would have been impoſſible, with any degree of ſafety, to have viſited every curious ſpot between Monteleone and Reggio, as I did, in four days. No one that has not had the experience, can conceive the horrid ſtate of the roads in Calabria, even in this ſeaſon, nor the ſuperior excellence of the horſes of the country. All agreed here, that every ſhock of the earthquake ſeemed to come with a rumbling noiſe from the weſtward, beginning uſually with the horizontal motion, and ending with the vorticoſe, which is the motion that has ruined moſt of the buildings in this province. The ſame obſervation I found to be a general one throughout this province. I found it a general obſervation alſo, that before a ſhock of an earthquake, the clouds ſeemed to be fixed and motionleſs; and that immediately after a heavy ſhower of rain, a ſhock quickly followed. I ſpoke with many here and elſewhere, who were thrown down by the violence of ſome of the ſhocks; and ſeveral peaſants in the country told me, that the motion of the earth was ſo violent, that the heads of the largeſt trees almoſt touched the ground from ſide to ſide; that during a ſhock, oxen and horſes extended their legs wide aſunder not to be thrown down, and that they gave evident ſigns of being ſenſible of the approach of each ſhock. I myſelf obſerved, that in the parts that have ſuffered moſt by the earthquakes, the braying of an aſs, the neighing of a horſe, or the cackling of a gooſe, always drove people out of their barracks, and was the occaſion of many Pater-Noſters and Ave-Marias being repeated in expectation of a ſhock. From Monteleone I deſcended into the plain, having paſſed through many towns and villages, which had been more or leſs ruined according to their vicinity to the plain. The town of Mileto, ſituated in the bottom, I ſaw was totally deſtroyed, and not a houſe ſtanding. At ſome diſtance I ſaw Soriano and the noble Dominican convent a heap of ruins; but as my object was not to viſit ruins, but the greater phenomena produced by the earthquakes, I went on to Roſarno. I muſt, however, firſt mention the moſt remarkable inſtance I met with, of animals being able to live long without food, of which there have been many examples during theſe preſent earthquakes. At Soriano two fattened hogs, that had remained buried under a heap of ruins, were taken out alive the forty-ſecond day; they were lean and weak, but ſoon recovered. One of his Sicilian Majeſty's engineers, who was preſent at the taking them out, gave me this information. It was evident to me, in this day's journey, that all habitations ſituated on high grounds, the ſoil of which is a gritty ſand-ſtone, ſomewhat like a granite, but without the conſiſtence, had ſuffered leſs than thoſe ſituated in the plain, which are univerſally levelled to the ground. The ſoil of the plain is a ſandy clay, white, red, or brown; but the white prevails moſt, and is full of marine ſhells, particularly ſcollop ſhells. This valley of clay is interſected in many places by rivers and torrents coming from the mountains, which have produced wide and deep ravines all over the country.

country. Soon after we had paſſed through the ruined town of St Pietro, we had a diſtant view of Sicily, and the ſummit of Mount Ætna, which ſmoked conſiderably. Juſt before we arrived at Roſarno, near a ford of the river Mamella, we paſſed over a ſwampy plain, in many parts of which I was ſhewn ſmall hollows in the earth, of the ſhape of an inverted cone; they were covered with ſand, as was the ſoil near them. I was told that, during the earthquake of the 5th of February, from each of theſe ſpots a fountain of water mixed with ſand had been driven up to a conſiderable height. I ſpoke to a peaſant here, who was preſent, and was covered with the water and ſand; but aſſured me that it was not hot, as had been repreſented. Before this appearance, he ſaid, the river was dry; but ſoon after returned, and overflowed its banks. I afterwards found, that the ſame phenomenon had been conſtant with reſpect to all the other rivers in the plain during the formidable ſhock of the 5th of February. I think this phenomenon is eaſily explained, by ſuppoſing the firſt impulſe of the earthquake to have come from the bottom upwards, which all the inhabitants of the plain atteſt to be fact; the ſurface of the plain ſuddenly riſing, the rivers, which are not deep, would naturally diſappear, and the plain, returning with violence to its former level, the rivers muſt have naturally returned, and overflowed, at the ſame time that the ſudden depreſſion of the boggy grounds would as naturally force out the water that lay hid under their ſurface. I obſerved, in the other parts where this phenomenon had been exhibited, that the ground was always low and ruſhy. Between this place and Roſarno we paſſed the rivers Meſſano or Metauro, (which is near the town above mentioned), on a ſtrong timber-bridge, 700 palms long, which had been lately built by the Duke of Monteleone. From the cracks made on the banks and in the bed of the river by the earthquake, it was quite ſeparated in one part, and the level on which the piers were placed having been variouſly altered, the bridge has taken an undulated form, and the rail on each ſide is curiouſly ſcolloped; but the parts that were ſeparated having been joined again, it is now paſſable: The Duke's bridgeman told me alſo, that at the moment of the earthquake, this great river was perfectly dry for ſome ſeconds, and then returned with violence, and overflowed; and that the bridge undulated in a moſt extraordinary manner. When I mention the earthquake in the plain, it muſt be always underſtood the firſt ſhock of the 5th of February, which was by far the moſt terrible, and was the one that did the whole miſchief in the plain, without having given any previous notice. The town of Roſarno, with the Duke of Monteleone's palace there, was entirely ruined; but the walls remained about ſix feet high, and are now fitting up as barracks. The mortality here did not much exceed 200 out of near 3000. It had been remarked at Roſarno, and the ſame remark has been conſtantly repeated to me in every ruined town that I have viſited, that the male dead were generally found under the ruins in the attitude of ſtruggling againſt the danger; but that the female attitude was uſually with hands claſped over their heads, as giving themſelves up to deſpair, unleſs they had children near them, in which caſe they always were found claſping the children in their arms, or in ſome attitude which indicated their anxious care to protect them; a ſtrong inſtance of the maternal tenderneſs of the ſex! The only building that remained unhurt at Roſarno was a ſtrong-built town-gaol, in which were three notorious villains, who would probably have loſt their lives had they been at liberty. After having dined in a barrack, the owner of which had loſt five of his family by the earthquake, I proceeded to Laureana, often croſſing the wide-extended bed of the river Metauro. [*To be continued.*]

Abſtracts of the Acts of Parliament impoſing new Taxes paſſed laſt Seſſion, concluded. [p. 344.]

ABSTRACT *of an* ACT *for granting to his Majeſty ſeveral additional and new Duties upon Stamped Vellum, Parchment, and Paper; and alſo for repealing certain Exemption from the Stamp-Duties.*

FROM and after the 1ſt of Auguſt 1783, for every receipt for a legacy left by any will, or other teſtamentary inſtrument, or for any ſhare or part of a perſonal eſtate divided by force of the ſtatute of diſtributions, or the cuſtom of any province or place, not exceeding 20l. an additional ſtamp-duty of 2s. 6d.; if above 20l. and under 100l. 5s.; if 100l. 20s.;

20 s.; and a like addition for every 100 l.

For every probate of a will for an eſtate of or above the value of 100 l. an additional duty of 20 s.; of 300 l. value, 40 s.; of 600 l. value, 3 l.; of 1000 l. value, 4 l.

An additional duty of 1 s. on every indenture, leaſe, or other deed, for which a duty of 1 s. 6 d. is payable by virtue of an act of the 17th of his preſent Majeſty, except bonds for the payment of money.

An additional duty of 5 s. on every bond for above 100 l. and an additional duty of 10 s. on every bond for 500 l. and upwards.

An additional duty of 6 d. on every original writ, (except ſuch original upon which a writ of *capias* iſſues), *ſubpœna* bill of Middleſex, *latitat*, writ of *capias*, *quo minus*, writ of *dedimus poteſtatem*, to take anſwers, examine witneſſes, or appoint guardians, or any other writ whatſoever, or any other proceſs or mandate that ſhall iſſue out, or paſs the ſeals of any court whatſoever holding plea, where the debt or damage amounts to 40 s. or above; writs of covenant for levying fines, writs of entry for ſuffering common recoveries, and writs of habeas corpus excepted.

An additional duty of 40 s. on every diſpenſation to hold eccleſiaſtical livings.

An additional duty of 40 s. on every admiſſion into any of the four inns of court.

An additional duty of 4 l. on every certificate of the degree of Utter Barriſter taken in any of the ſaid inns of court.

An additional duty of 40 s. on every grant or letters-patent under the great ſeal, or the ſeal of the duchy of Lancaſter, of any honour, &c. (commiſſions of rebellion in proofs excepted), and on every admittance of a fellow of the college of phyſicians, or of an attorney, clerk, advocate, proctor, notary, or other officer in any court whatſoever in Great Britain, not being an annual officer in any corporation or inferior court, whoſe ſalary is under 10 l. per ann.

An additional duty of 4 d. on every bill of lading for goods to be exported.

An additional duty of 8 d. on every certificate for drawing back the duties on exportation.

An additional duty of 1 s. on every citation, libel, depoſition, anſwer, ſentence, final decree, or inventory exhibited in any eccleſiaſtical court, the courts of admiralty, or cinque ports, or any proteſt, or other notorial act.

An additional duty of 2 s. 6 d. on every conveyance, ſurrender of grants, or other deed whatſoever, that ſhall be inrolled in any court of record whatſoever, or by any cuſtos rotulorum or clerk of the peace.

An additional duty of 5 s. on every writ of covenant for levying fines, or any exemplification, of what nature ſoever, that ſhall paſs the ſeal of any court.

An additional duty of 5 s. on every beneficial warrant under his Majeſty's ſignmanual, except warrants for the ſervice of the navy, army, and ordnance.

An additional duty of 2 s. 3 d. on every transfer of ſtock in any company, ſociety, or corporation in Great Britain.

An additional duty of 2 s. 6 d. on every ſurrender of, or admittance to a cuſtom or tenant-right eſtate, not copyhold, in England or Wales, except ſuch cuſtom-right or tenant-right eſtates as ſhall not exceed the clear yearly value of 20 s.

An additional duty of 2 s. 6 d. on every ſurrender of, or admittance to, any cuſtom or tenant-right, or copyhold eſtate, in England or Wales, except ſuch eſtates as ſhall not exceed the clear yearly value of 20 s.

An additional duty of 6 d. on every bill, anſwer, replication, or other pleadings, in the courts of chancery, exchequer, duchy courts, and county palatine courts, or other courts of equity.

An additional duty of 2 s. on every admiſſion into any corporation or company, or any matriculation in either of the Univerſities.

An additional duty of 1 s. on every original inſtrument of ſurrender, charter, or ſeiſin, of houſes or lands in burgage tenure in Scotland.

An additional duty of 1 s. on every original ſeiſin taken upon a mortgage in Scotland.

An additional duty of 1 s. on every original retour of any ſervice of heirs, &c. in Scotland.

An additional duty of 1 s. on every charter or reſignation, &c. in Scotland.

An additional duty of 1 s. on every original inſtrument of ſurrender of lands, tenements,

tenements, &c. to the ſuperiors thereof, in Scotland.

A duty of 6 s. on every agreement, whether the ſame ſhall be only the evidence of the contract, or obligatory upon the parties.

A duty of 2 s. 6 d. on every inventory of furniture, goods, or effects, made with reference to any agreement, or for the ſecurity of any perſon, except inventories produceable in the eccleſiaſtical courts, or of goods and chattles diſtrained for rent in arrear.

A duty of 5 s. on every award.

This act does not extend to charge with the additional duties any legacy left by any will, or other teſtamentary inſtrument, or any ſhare of a perſonal eſtate to be divided by force of the ſtatute of diſtributions, or the cuſtom of any province or place, which ſhall be left to the wife, children, or grandchildren of the perſon making ſuch will; nor to any memorandum, containing the heads of inſurances to be made by the corporations of the Royal Exchange Aſſurance, or London Inſurance of houſes and goods from fire; nor to any agreement for any leaſe at rack rent of any meſſuage under the yearly value of 5 l. nor to any agreement for the hire of any labourer, artificer, manufacturer, or menial ſervant; nor to any agreement relating to the ſale of any goods, wares, or merchandize; nor to any agreement where the matter of it ſhall not exceed 20 l.; nor to any agreement made in Scotland that ſhall be ſtamped with the duty required on deeds in that part of Great Britain.

That no agreement ſhall be deemed void, in caſe the ſame ſhall be ſtamped at the head office, or the duty ſhall be paid, and a receipt given thereon by the proper officers receiving ſuch duty, within twenty-one days after the ſame ſhall have been entered into.

Vellum, parchment, or paper, to be ſtamped before printed or wrote upon.

Perſons who ſhall have in their poſſeſſion any vellum, parchment, or paper, ſtamped with a ſtamp denoting any former duty, a new ſtamp is directed to be impreſſed, and they ſhall have the like remedy and allowance as by any former law relating to ſtamped vellum, &c. as in like caſes directed. Perſons counterfeiting ſtamps, or knowingly vending ſuch counterfeits, to ſuffer death.

That ſuch parts of any act or acts of parliament relative to any turnpike, highway, paving, road, bridge, incloſure, navigation, or canal, or any other matter or thing, paſſed before the 5th December 1782, as exempt any mortgage aſſignment, or transfer, or other ſecurity for borrowing money from being ſtamped, are hereby repealed; but this repeal not to extend to any transfer, or other writings whatſoever concerning the public revenue or public funds, or to any other writing expreſsly exempted from the ſtamp-duties by any act of parliament granting ſuch duties, unleſs where ſuch exemption has been repealed.

PRÆMIA LITERARIA.

AN Engliſh gentleman has offered a premium of ten guineas (or a gold medal of equal value) for the *beſt* copy of Engliſh verſes, and ten guineas more (or an equivalent gold medal) for the *beſt* Latin or French proſe diſſertation on the following ſubject:

Utrum exoptandum ſit, ut vaticinium Turgotianum cito impleatur?

In Engliſh:

"Whether it ought to be greatly wiſhed, that M. Turgot's prediction may be ſpeedily accompliſhed?"

Monſ. Turgot's prediction, about thirteen years ago, was as follows:

"As a citizen of the world, I ſee with pleaſure an event approaching, which will diſperſe that dreaded phantom *the jealouſy of trade*, more than all the writings of philoſophers. I mean the ſeparation of your (Engliſh) Colonies from the mother country; — AN EVENT WHICH WILL SOON BE FOLLOWED BY THAT OF ALL AMERICA FROM EUROPE. That will be the æra, when the diſcovery of this part of the world will become a real benefit to mankind. For then we ſhall enjoy its productions in much greater abundance, than when we purchaſed them at the expence of torrents of blood; then the Engliſh, French, and Spaniſh nations, &c. will uſe and conſume the ſugar, coffee, and indigo of America, and traffic for them with their own merchandiſes, juſt as the Swiſs do at preſent. And, like the people of Switzerland, they will have the ſame advantage; that is, theſe ſugars, coffee, and indigo, will no longer ſerve for a pretext to *monopolizing traders* and *intriguing politicians*, to plunge the people into deſtructive wars, and overwhelm them with taxes."

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HISTORY 1781 continued. [p. 354.]

Operations in the West-Indies.

IT will now be neceſſary to take a view of thoſe tranſactions in the Weſt Indies, which led in no ſmall degree, in their conſequences, to that fatal event which was to cloſe the campaign in Virginia, and ſeemed to threaten no leſs than the total extinction of the Britiſh power in that part of the world.

Towards the cloſe of the year 1780, an expedition was undertaken againſt the iſland of St Vincent; but after ſome troops were landed, the enemy were found in ſuch force, that it was judged prudent not to hazard an attack.

About a month after this ineffectual attempt, Sir G. Rodney and Gen. Vaughan, in conſequence of inſtructions from England, directed their views to the reduction of the Dutch iſland of St Euſtatius. This iſland, barren and contemptible in itſelf, has long been the ſeat of a lucrative and prodigious commerce; and indeed might be conſidered as the grand free port of the Weſt Indies and America, and as a general market and magazine to all nations. Its richeſt harveſts were, however, during the ſeaſons of warfare amongſt its neighbours; owing to its neutrality and ſituation, with its unbounded and unclogged freedom of trade. So ſtrong was the ſpirit of commerce, and ſo immerſed were its checkered and tranſient inhabitants in traffic and gain, that when Holland herſelf was engaged in a war, the ſame freedom of trade continued, and the enemy were not only ſupplied with all manner of common neceſſaries, but even with naval and military ſtores, as if no rupture with the parent ſtate had taken place.

This iſland is a natural fortification; and has but one landing place, which might be eaſily rendered impracticable to an enemy. But hoſtility and war, with reſpect to themſelves, being totally out of the ideas of ſuch a people, defence could not be thought of. It will be eaſily conceived, that the inhabitants of ſuch a barren rock were not very numerous; and from the circumſtances we have related it will not appear ſurpriſing, that they ſhould notwithſtanding include in their number, ſome leſs or greater portion of the natives of almoſt all trading countries.

The Britiſh fleet and army, after exciting an alarm on the coaſts of Martinique, with a view only of diſguiſing their real deſign, on Feb. 3. 1781, ſuddenly appeared before and ſurrounded the iſland of St Euſtatius with a great force; when Sir G. Rodney and Gen. Vaughan ſent a peremptory ſummons to the governor, to ſurrender the iſland and its dependencies within an hour; accompanied with a declaration or threat, that if any reſiſtance was made, he muſt abide by the conſequences. M. de Graaff, the governor, totally ignorant of the rupture between England and Holland, could ſcarcely, at firſt, believe the officer who delivered the ſummons to be ſerious. He however returned for anſwer, that being utterly incapable of making any defence againſt the force which inveſted the iſland, he muſt of neceſſity ſurrender it; only recommending the town and inhabitants to the known and uſual clemency of Britiſh commanders.

The wealth found in the place was ſo prodigious, as to excite the aſtoniſhment even of the conquerors, notwithſtanding their intimate previous knowledge of its nature and circumſtances. The whole iſland ſeemed to be only one vaſt magazine. All the ſtorehouſes were not only filled with various commodities, but the beach was covered with hogſheads of ſugar and tobacco. The value of the commodities was eſtimated, by a looſe, but ſuppoſed moderate calculation, as being conſiderably above three millions Sterling. But this was only a part. The capture of ſhipping was immenſe. Above 250 veſſels of all denominations, and many of them richly loaded, were taken in the bay; excluſive of a Dutch frigate of war, of 38 guns, and five leſſer ones.

The neighbouring ſmall iſlands of St Martin and Saba, were reduced in the ſame manner; and Sir G. Rodney having information, that a fleet of about thirty large ſhips, richly laden with ſugar, and other Weſt-India commodities, had, juſt before his arrival, ſailed from Euſtatius for Holland, under convoy of a flag ſhip of ſixty guns, he immediately diſpatched the Monarch and Panther, with the Sybil frigate, in purſuit of them. Theſe ſoon overtook the convoy; and the Dutch admiral refuſing to ſtrike his colours, and all remonſtrances proving ineffectual to ſubdue his obſtinacy, a ſhort engagement took place between him, in the Mars, and Capt. Reynolds in the Monarch; in which the former died bravely in defence of his ſhip. The Mars then immediately ſtruck; and the Panther and Sybil having in the mean time reſtrained

the flight and ſeparation of the merchantmen, the whole convoy was taken.

This was one of the ſevereſt blows that Holland could have received. The Dutch Weſt-India company, with the magiſtracy and citizens of Amſterdam, were undoubtedly great ſufferers upon the occaſion. But the greateſt weight of the calamity ſeems to have fallen upon the Britiſh merchants, who confiding in the neutrality of the place, and in ſome acts of parliament, made to encourage the bringing of their property from the iſlands lately taken by the French, had accumulated a great quantity of Weſt-India produce, as well as of European goods, in this place. For all the property was indiſcriminately ſeized, inventoried, and declared to be confiſcated.

The keeping up of Dutch colours in the nominal fort at St Euſtatius, rendered it for ſome time a decoy to French, Dutch, and American veſſels; a conſiderable number of which fell accordingly into the hands of the conquerors without trouble.

A ſquadron of privateers, moſtly belonging to Briſtol, as ſoon as they heard of the rupture with Holland, boldly entered the rivers of Demerary and Eſſequibo, which were deemed highly dangerous, if not utterly unnavigable to ſtrangers, and with no ſmall degree of courage and enterpriſe, brought out, from under the guns of the Dutch forts and batteries, almoſt all the veſſels of any value in either river. The prizes were conſiderable. And as it was impoſſible for the privateers to be yet provided with letters of marque and reprizal againſt the new and unexpected enemy, they truſted to the honour of government not to take any advantage of that defect, in doing, what appeared to them, to be good ſervice to their country as well as to themſelves.

The governors and principal inhabitants of thoſe ſettlements, being ſenſible of their defenceleſs ſituation, and being terrified at the apprehenſion of falling a prey to adventurers, who are as ſeldom conſidered as being ſtrict obſervers, as of being proper judges, of the laws and cuſtoms of nations, had already made a tender of their ſubmiſſion to the governor of Barbadoes; requiring no other terms but a participation of thoſe which had been granted to St Euſtatius and its dependencies. As both parties were equally ignorant of theſe terms, the newly propoſed ſubjects were neceſſarily referred to the commanders in chief; who could alone tell the nature of conditions which had never been ſpecified, and of which they were conſequently the only interpreters and judges. A deputation was accordingly ſent by the Dutch coloniſts to St Euſtatius for that purpoſe.

There they found that they had made a very improvident demand, as, in effect, the terms which they required were, that they might be deſpoiled of all their goods, and baniſhed from their habitations. For this was the general treatment of the greater part of the inhabitants of St Euſtatius.--But it would be painful to go through all the circumſtances of a buſineſs, which drew upon us (whether the acts were defenſible or not) the odium of all Europe. Suffice it to ſay, that all the horrors of ſo univerſal a havock of property which might have been expected, were fully realiſed. Public ſales were advertiſed, invitation given, and protection afforded to purchaſers of all nations; and the iſland of St Euſtatius became one of the greateſt auctions that ever was opened in the univerſe.

Whilſt the conquerors of St Euſtatius were involved in the immenſity of their plunder, matters were tending to a criſis, which was to ſhake the Britiſh power, both in the Weſt Indies and America, to the center.

For on the 22d of March M. de Graſſe had ſailed from Breſt, with a fleet of 25 ſail of the line, the Sagittaire of 54 guns, 6000 land forces, and a prodigious convoy, amounting to between two and three hundred ſhips; the whole compoſing one of the largeſt and richeſt fleets that ever ſailed from France. Of this formidable armament, five ſhips of the line, under M. de Suffrein, with part of the land forces, were deſtined for the Eaſt-Indies; with a view likewiſe of intercepting Com. Johnſtone's ſquadron and convoy on their way. M. de Graſſe, with 20 ſail of the line, the 50 gun ſhip, and the remainder of the convoy, proceeded directly for Fort Royal bay in Martinique.

Though the departure of Com. Hotham, with a ſmall ſquadron, in the month of March, for the protection of the convoy, which bore a great part of the St Euſtatius treaſure, on its way to England, reduced Sir George Rodney's fleet to 21 ſail of the line; yet, we ſee, that it was not unequal to the encounter

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of the outward-bound French force under M. de Graſſe. But the French had already eight ſhips of the line, and one 50, at Martinique and St Domingo; ſo that the arrival of De Graſſe muſt give them a decided ſuperiority; for Sir Peter Parker had only four ſail of the line at Jamaica; and neither the protection of that iſland, nor its ſituation ſo far to leeward, would admit of any reinforcement to the windward iſlands fleet. Every thing ſeemed therefore to depend upon the intercepting of De Graſſe's ſquadron and convoy; as his junction, freſh and without action, with the French ſhips already on the ſtation, muſt evidently afford the means of endangering moſt, if not all, of the neighbouring Britiſh iſlands.

Sir George Rodney, accordingly, detached the Admirals Sir Samuel Hood and Drake, with 17 ſail of the line, to cruize off Fort-Royal bay, for that purpoſe. He ſtill continued himſelf, with his own ſhip the Sandwich of 90, and the Triumph of 74 guns, at St Euſtatius; as did General Vaughan, with the ſtrong body of troops, which ſeem to have been from the firſt, not at all neceſſary to the reduction of a place in ſo poor a ſtate of defence. The Prince William, of 64 guns, was then at St Lucia; and the Panther, of 60, on a cruize.

On the 28th of April, ſome of Sir S. Hood's headmoſt cruizers returned haſtily in ſight, with ſignals, which announced the appearance of a ſuperior fleet and numerous convoy. Immediately the ſignal for a general chace to windward was thrown out, hoping that by getting to windward, they might be enabled to cloſe in with Fort Royal at day light, ſo as to cut off the enemy from that quarter.

In the morning of April 29. the enemy appeared, and notwithſtanding the great inequality of force, every poſſible exertion was uſed by the Britiſh commanders to bring them to cloſe action. In this however they failed, as de Graſſe being to windward, had the choice of the diſtance. A diſtant cannonade took place; the firing from firſt to laſt continuing for about three hours. The loſs in men amounted only to 36 killed, and 161 wounded; but the ſervice ſuffered conſiderably in the death of the brave Capt. Nott of the Centaur, and his firſt lieutenant Plowden. The damage ſuſtained by the Ruſſel, and at leaſt four other ſhips, which rendered them unfit for immediate ſervice, was the great loſs ſuſtained in this engagement. The Ruſſel had received ſo many ſhots between wind and water, that ſhe was obliged to bear away for St Euſtatius, and was with difficulty preſerved from ſinking in her paſſage.—The condition of the wounded ſhips, which grew continually worſe by motion, induced the Britiſh commanders in the night, to a determination of bearing away for Antigua, inſtead of loſing any more time in daring or tempting the enemy to an engagement.

The arrival of the Ruſſel indicated to the conquerors of St Euſtatius, the danger of attending any longer to the ſale of the effects in that iſland. Great exertions were employed to fit her again for ſervice; her damages, though the water had riſen above the platform of her magazine, were ſpeedily repaired; and in three days after her arrival, the Admiral and General, with the Sandwich, Triumph, Ruſſel, and ſome land forces, proceeded to join Sir S. Hood, and to protect the iſlands. Some time was neceſſarily ſpent at Antigua, after the junction, for the repair and ſupply of the ſhips which had ſuffered in the late action; and that buſineſs being done, the commander in chief proceeded with the whole fleet to Barbadoes.

In the mean time, the Marquis de Bouille, with a body of troops under the Viſcount Damas, landed in the night of May 10. on the iſland of St Lucia; and on the following day, the iſland was inveſted with a French fleet of twenty-five ſail of the line. Notwithſtanding this great force, ſuch ſoldierly diſpoſitions and vigorous preparations were made, that the Marquis, after in vain attempting to reduce the iſland, was obliged to give up the enterpriſe, and to re-imbark his troops.

On the very day that Sir G. Rodney, with the fleet, arrived from Antigua at Barbadoes, a ſmall French ſquadron, with a conſiderable body of land forces, under the conduct of M. de Blanchelande, late governor of St Vincent's, appeared off the iſland of Tobago on May 23. Gov. Ferguſon immediately diſpatched the Rattleſnake, which was a very ſwift ſailer, with the intelligence to Sir G. Rodney, at Barbadoes; and Capt. Barnes had the fortune to deliver the diſpatch, at twelve o'clock on the night of the 26th. It is not our buſineſs to enter any farther into the controverſy which aroſe upon this ſubject, than

merely to ſtate the facts as they appear. The commander in chief ſeems to have conceived, that the force of the invaders was much leſs, and that of the iſland conſiderably greater, than they really were. Under the influence of this opinion, the commander in chief contented himſelf with ſending Adm. Drake, with ſix ſale of the line, ſome frigates, with a regiment, and two additional companies, under the conduct of Gen. Skeene, to its relief. At the ſame time, ſome light and expeditious veſſels were diſpatched, to give the governor notice of the intended ſuccour.

Upon Adm. Drake's making the iſland, on the morning of the 30th, he diſcovered the enemy's fleet, of 27 ſail, to leeward, between him and the land. He, however, like a bold and good officer, did not haul his wind, until he had fully explored their ſituation and ſtrength, and ſaw that it was utterly impoſſible for him to land the troops, or to afford any relief whatever to the iſland. He was purſued to a conſiderable diſtance; while the garriſon and inhabitants, beſides the mortification of perceiving that they could not be relieved, were farther comforted with a report, that the whole ſquadron and reinforcement had fallen a prey to the enemy.

Adm. Drake diſpatched his ſwifteſt frigates to inform Sir G. Rodney of what had paſt, and of his own return; and arrived in ſight of Carliſle Bay on the 2d of June; the fleet did not come out until the following day. Gen. Vaughan himſelf, with, probably, an additional reinforcement of troops, now embarked on board the fleet.

Upon their arrival off Tobago, they ſoon received intelligence of the loſs of the iſland, and on the following day were in ſight of the French fleet, conſiſting of 24 ſail of the line. The Britiſh amounting either to 20 or 21: for the accounts vary in that degree. Notwithſtanding this diſparity, never were ſhips cleared with more alacrity for action, nor a greater diſpoſition ſhewn to it, both by officers and private ſeamen, than was now done. As the enemy were to leeward, and ſeemed more diſpoſed to ſeek than to ſhun an action, the option ſeemed to lie on our ſide. It is probable, that the loſs of the iſland operated in deterring the Britiſh commander in chief from hazarding an action againſt a ſuperior force, when the great object of ſuch a riſk was then no more.

During theſe tranſactions at ſea, the French met with more trouble and difficulty in the reduction of the iſland than they could have expected. After failing in their attempts on the firſt day, they made their landing good in Courland Bay, on the morning of the 24th. Their force was eſtimated at between 2 and 3000 men; whilſt, according to the governor's public account, the whole of that for the defence of the iſland of Tobago, including regulars, militia, and ſeamen, amounted only to 427 whites, of all ſorts, who held arms in their hands; but to theſe were added a ſmall party of forty armed negroes, who behaved with undaunted courage in ſome deſperate ſervice.

After ſome emulation about poſts, and attempts to impede the progreſs of the enemy, Gov. Ferguſon, with the troops and militia, retired to a poſt called Concordia; which is a naturally ſtrong high ground, that commands a view of both ſides of the iſland; a circumſtance which made it particularly intereſting to the defendants. There they were inveſted, as cloſely as the nature and difficulty of the ground would admit; M. de Blanchelande having in vain endeavoured to terrify the militia into a deſertion of their arms, by threatening plunder and confiſcation to their plantations, if they did not return within a ſhort given time to them.

The ſpirit and patriotiſm ſhewn by the planters in general during this unequal conteſt is highly deſerving of praiſe; but the extraordinary inſtances of magnanimity afforded by individuals claims particular notice. On the firſt advance of the enemy, and diſpute about poſts, Mr Collow generouſly propoſed to the governor, to ſet fire to his own canes, in order to diſtreſs them on their march, and to impede their progreſs through a faſt and narrow country. During the ſiege of Concordia, Mr Law, underſtanding that the governor was unwilling to deſtroy his dwelling houſe and the adjoining buildings, although they afforded ſome cover to the enemy, not only made the propoſal himſelf to burn them, but carried it inſtantly into execution under their fire, being aſſiſted only by his own negroes, who ſuffered not a little in the conflict. And when the garriſon were retired to their laſt faſtneſs, the way to which was exceedingly narrow, difficult, and utterly unknown

known to the enemy, neither the threats of immediate deſtruction to his property, nor of inſtant death to himſelf, could in any degree bend his mind to the taſk of conducting the French army againſt his friends.

The ſiege of Concordia, if ſuch may be called the attack on an open hill, where the garriſon had no cover or ſhelter from the weather, continued from the 25th of May, until the morning of the 1ſt of June. During the greater part of that time, the governor and garriſon were buoyed up by the hope, and impatiently expected the arrival, of that ſuccour, on which their preſervation ſeemed to depend. We have already ſeen that they were diſappointed.

The whole French fleet, with the Marquis de Bouille, and a ſtrong reinforcement of troops from Martinique, had arrived off the iſland before the Engliſh ſuccours; and Adm. Drake's letter, which was received in the morning of the 30th, and announced his bringing 528 land forces to their relief, was accompanied with, or ſpeedily followed by intelligence, that he had fallen in with, and was therefore moſt probably taken by the enemy. The Marquis de Bouille, with his forces, were landed on that evening; and on the following day, joined thoſe before Concordia.

In the mean time, the French had taken poſſeſſion of ſeveral of the neighbouring hills, ſome of which overlooked that place, and of other near and advantageous poſts and approaches, which led to their deſign of carrying it by ſtorm in the night; a meaſure which they had already tried, but had failed through the error of their guides, in miſſing the right path in the dark. Under a knowledge of all theſe circumſtances, a council of war was called in the garriſon, and the engineers being of opinion that the place was no longer tenible againſt ſo ſuperior a force, it was unanimouſly determined to retreat to a poſt on the Main Ridge, where a few huts had been built, and ſome proviſions and ammunition previouſly lodged for the purpoſe. The retreat was ſo well conducted, that the place was evacuated at one in the morning of the 1ſt of June, and notwithſtanding the nearneſs of the enemy, the Marquis de Bouille ſent a flag after day break to ſummon the garriſon.

But the patience and conſtancy of the militia, and even of the regular forces, began now to be exhauſted. Fretted by long expectation, vexed by continued diſappointment, worn down by fatigue, hardſhip, and the inclemency of the climate, the former beheld their whole preſent and future proſperity at the brink of ruin; they felt that their obſtinacy would render the deſtruction inevitable, whilſt they could not found a hope in favour of farther exertion; they conſidered that their proviſions would be exhauſted in a few days, which would render their laſt ſtrong hold of no longer avail; and all ideas of relief, if not quite eraſed, were now grown ſo faint as to be ſcarcely perceptible.

The meaſures purſued by the Marquis de Bouille could not but ſtrengthen theſe diſpoſitions. Enraged at the eſcape of an enemy whom he had conſidered as in his hands; and ſtill more provoked through the apprehenſion of the war being protracted, from that enemy's getting into a difficult country, and an impracticable poſt, theſe circumſtances occaſioned his departing from thoſe principles of lenity which had hitherto ſo much diſtinguiſhed his conduct. To the operation of theſe circumſtances may be added, as not leaſt, or weakeſt, his open and avowed reſentment for the late tranſactions at St Euſtatius; having made himſelf a direct party in that buſineſs, by his fruitleſs interpoſition in behalf of the inhabitants, and by a correſpondence of mutual irritation and defiance on the ſubject. [vol. 43. p. 384.]

The Marquis accordingly purſued the garriſon with the utmoſt eagerneſs; but finding his troops overcome by the heat, while the fugitives were ſtill four miles a-head of him, and that he could not even procure any perſon who would conduct his army through the ſtrong country and intricate ways which they had to paſs, he determined to make terror unite with force in the ſhortening of a buſineſs, which was likely otherwiſe not only to become troubleſome and tedious, but might in the iſſue obſtruct thoſe great objects which the fleet had ſtill in view. He accordingly ordered two capital plantations, which were at hand, to be reduced to aſhes; and finding their deſtruction did not produce the deſired effect, he ordered that four more ſhould meet with a ſimilar fate at the commencement of every four hours, until the iſland was laid waſte, or that a ſurrender ſhould be made.

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The garriſon had halted at a place called Caledonia, which lies about the centre of the iſland. From thence, acroſs the Main Ridge to the north ſide, is a road or path, ſix miles long, and ſo narrow, that two men cannot walk abreaſt. It is evident, that a few men might defend this long and narrow paſs againſt almoſt any force; and at its farther end was the poſt which we have mentioned, where the huts were conſtructed, and the proviſions lodged, as the laſt reſort. Whilſt the forces reſted at Caledonia, the governor, with the engineers, puſhed on to the huts, in order to make ſuch preparations as were neceſſary for their reception and diſpoſition.

During his abſence, the plantations were ſet on fire, and the threats held out which we have mentioned. Some account of theſe tranſactions brought the governor haſtily back; but he found the face of affairs totally changed upon his return. The militia, before ſo reſolute and determined, now abſolutely refuſed to hold out any longer. All his remonſtrances were in vain. The deſpair of relief, and the ſight, or the immediate apprehenſion of ſeeing their eſtates in flames, made them deaf to every thing. It would ſeem, though it does not abſolutely appear, that a treaty was already opened, and perhaps far advanced, with the Marquis de Bouille; and it is evident, that the regular forces were no more diſpoſed than the inhabitants, to meet the ideas of the governor, in protracting a deſperate defence to the laſt poſſible moment, and that too at the price of irretrieveable deſtruction to the whole iſland. The governor repreſents, that the commanding officer accordingly refuſed to obey his orders, in taking poſſeſſion of the paſs which led to the huts; and that the regular forces determined to capitulate without his conſent.

The Governor, at firſt, refuſed to have any ſhare in the capitulation; but finding that the current was too ſtrong to be by any means reſiſted, and conſidering that the people, in the preſent ſtate of apprehenſion, hurry, and danger, were liable to agree haſtily to worſe terms than might otherwiſe be obtained, he at length acceded. The conditions were exceedingly favourable and advantageous to the iſland. Thoſe of Dominique were laid as the ground-work by the Governor; and though they differed in ſome things, the inhabitants thought the preſent, upon the whole, to be more favourable.

The ſeaſon was now far advanced; the French had done their buſineſs in the Weſt Indies with equal ſucceſs and eclat; but the great object of the campaign was ſtill to be purſued on the coaſts of North America. M. de Graſſe accordingly departed with his whole fleet and a large convoy, from Fort-Royal Bay in Martinique, on the 5th of July, and arrived at Cape François, in Hiſpaniola or St Domingo, by the middle of the month; where he was reinforced by five ſail of the line. In the beginning of the following month he ſailed from the Cape with a prodigious convoy; which having ſeen out of danger, and touched at the Havannah for money, he then directed his courſe, with 28 ſail of the line, and ſeveral frigates, for the Cheſapeak; where he arrived by the end of the month.

At this critical period Sir G. Rodney returned to England, a meaſure which it was ſaid his ſtate of health rendered neceſſary. Before his departure, he ordered Sir S. Hood, with fourteen ſail of the line, to proceed to the Cheſapeak, and he likewiſe ſent expreſſes to Adm. Greaves at New York, with orders to repair to the Cheſapeak, and form a junction with Sir Samuel. Unfortunately none of the expreſſes were received.

AMERICA.

WE are now to purſue the courſe of events and action, from the Weſt Indies to the coaſts of North America. Lord Cornwallis, upon taking the command in Virginia, found the enemy in no condition to oppoſe him with any degree of effect; and the people being at mercy in that open country, numbers came in daily, both to his own immediate army, and to the corps which he placed under the conduct of Gen. Leſlie at Portſmouth, in order to give in their paroles, and to receive protections. He firſt advanced from Peterſburgh, on the Appomatox, to the river James, which he paſſed at Weſtover, and thence marching through Hanover county, croſſed the ſouth Anna, or Pamonky river; the Marquis de la Fayette conſtantly following his motions, but at a guarded diſtance, in every part of his progreſs.

From the South Anna, he diſpatched the Colonels Tarleton and Simcoe, with ſeparate

ſeparate detachments, to ſcour the interior country. As they penetrated into the inmoſt receſſes, which had hitherto been free from ſpoil, they were enabled to do great miſchief to the Americans. Beſides deſtroying ſeveral thouſand ſtand of arms which were under repair, with large quantities of gunpowder, ſalt, harneſs, and other matters, which were either deſigned for, or capable of being applied to military ſervices, they were very near falling upon the Baron de Steuben, who with 800 men was poſted at a place called the Point of Fork; and who with difficulty ſaved his rear from being cut off.

Upon the return of theſe detachments, Lord Cornwallis fell back with the army to Richmond, on the river James; and afterwards, moving ſtill nearer to the ſea, paſſed the Chickahominy, and towards the latter end of June arrived at Williamſburgh, the capital of Virginia, which lies ſomething about mid-way between the great rivers of York and James. In the courſe of the march, beſides articles ſimilar to thoſe which we have already ſpecified, above 2000 hogſheads of tobacco, with ſome braſs, and a great number of iron ordnance, were deſtroyed; and a few of the moſt valuable of the former, with a quantity of ſhot and ſhells, brought off. On their approach to Williamſburgh, Simcoe's corps, which brought up the rear, were purſued, and warmly attacked by a ſuperior force of the enemy; but after a briſk action, the aſſailants were repulſed; each ſide boaſting the greater loſs ſuſtained by the other, as well as the ſuperiority of its force.

The Marquis de la Fayette being now ſtrongly reinforced by the arrival of General Wayne, with the Pennſylvania ſuccours, and ſtill farther by the junction of the Baron de Steuben's troops, as well as of ſuch militia as Virginia herſelf was by this time able to arm and aſſemble, the enemy were become ſo powerful as to reſtrain all diſtant operations on the Britiſh ſide, and even to render the collective movements of the army a matter of guarded caution. Lord Cornwallis was now likewiſe to look to the ultimate object of the campaign, which was the eſtabliſhment of a ſtrong poſt and place of arms, that by embracing ſome good harbour, or commanding one of the great navigable rivers, ſhould equally facilitate the future operations by ſea and land.

It does not ſeem, that the Commander in Chief in New York, and Lord Cornwallis, entirely coincided in opinion, with reſpect to the mode of conducting the war in Virginia. The former, under an expectation of being himſelf attacked by the combined forces of America and France, wiſhed to recall a conſiderable part of the troops for the ſecurity of New York, and only to leave ſuch a number on that ſervice, as would be neceſſary for the maintenance of ſuch a poſt as we have mentioned. On the other hand, Lord Cornwallis, who formed his judgement on the ſpot, ſeems to have been of opinion, that nothing leſs than an offenſive war could anſwer any effectual purpoſe in Virginia; and that a conſiderable army would be neceſſary for that end; as an inſufficient force, however ſucceſsful in the beginning, would, in his judgement, at length be overborne. He likewiſe held, that the reduction of that province was eſſential, both to the ſubjugation, and the retention of the Carolinas. But as his whole force, without any reduction, was utterly unequal to that purpoſe, and that he likewiſe ſeems to have placed no great truſt in the advantages to be derived from the eſtabliſhment of the propoſed poſt, it became evident that he felt his ſituation very uneaſy and diſagreeable, not only with regard to the difficulties which he foreſaw in the ſervice, but with reſpect to the weight of reſponſibility to which he would be liable.

He therefore wiſhed much to return to his command in South Carolina, where the illneſs of Lord Rawdon rendered his preſence highly neceſſary. This, however, could not be complied with; the Commander in Chief probably thinking it too hazardous to quit New York himſelf in the preſent ſtate of affairs, and perhaps judging, that the ſervice in Virginia would require all the abilities of the preſent commander.

Upon a perſonal examination of Portſmouth, with a view to the intended poſt, Lord Cornwallis found it totally incompetent to the purpoſe; for beſides the ſituation being exceedingly unhealthy, and that it would require little leſs than an army for its defence, it was incapable of receiving ſhips of the line, whoſe protection, if neceſſary, and a ſecure ſtation at all times, were the principal objects of the deſign. Point Comfort, which had likewiſe been propoſed, was found no

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leſs incapable or defective; and the poſts of York Town, on the river of the ſame name, with Glouceſter Point, on the oppoſite ſide, afforded the only remaining choice. Theſe, however, required the whole force which Lord Cornwallis poſſeſſed to render them effective; and Sir Henry Clinton, upon that information, at length relinquiſhed the deſign of recalling any part of the troops. The uncertainty, however, upon this point, ſeems to have conſiderably delayed the conſtruction of the works for the defence of thoſe poſts.

The hot and ſickly ſeaſon, which was now for a time to reſtrain all military operations on both ſides, occaſioned Lord Cornwallis's departure from Williamſburgh, with a view of paſſing the River James, in order to examine the ſituation of Portſmouth, Hampton, and thoſe other places on that ſide which had been held out as capable of being converted into the intended fortified poſt. The army, upon this movement, having encamped in an open field near James Town, but under the cover of their ſhipping, preparatory to their paſſing the river, the American commanders were now grown ſo confident, that the Marquis de la Fayette immediately puſhed forward the Generals Wayne and Muhlenburg, with the light troops and van, while he followed himſelf with the remainder of the army, in order to take ſome advantage of their ſituation, or to interrupt their deſign.

Lord Cornwallis received intelligence, July 6. that the enemy were approaching about noon; and about four o'clock, they attacked his outpoſts in conſiderable force, and with no ſmall warmth. As he was perſuaded that they would not venture a ſerious attack, excepting under the impreſſion that only a rear guard were left on that ſide of the river, he accordingly uſed all means that might encourage that opinion of his weakneſs. The ſtratagem ſeems to have taken; for, about ſun-ſet, a body of troops, with artillery, began to form in his front; upon which he immediately ordered the army to advance in two lines upon the enemy. The attack was begun with great ſpirit by the firſt line; and there being nothing but militia oppoſed to the light infantry on the right, the action was ſoon over on that ſide. But Col. Dundas's brigade on the left, conſiſting of the 43d, 76th, and 80th regiments, meeting the Pennſylvania line, with a detachment of de la Fayette's continentals, and two ſix-pounders, under the conduct of General Wayne, a ſhort but very warm action enſued; in which, however, the Americans were repulſed, and obliged to abandon their cannon. The darkneſs prevented any purſuit, and the Britiſh army paſſed the river in the night.

The Britiſh General, finding no place, upon examination, on the ſouth ſide of the river, which could anſwer the purpoſe propoſed by a permanent poſt, and having received Sir Henry Clinton's conſent for retaining his whole force, on the grounds which we have already ſeen, returned with the army, in Auguſt, to that peninſula which lies between the great rivers of James and York, and compoſes one of the richeſt and moſt beautiful parts of Virginia. York Town lies on the river of that name, on the narroweſt part of the peninſula, where it is about five miles over; Glouceſter Point is on the north, and oppoſite ſide; and projects ſo far into the river, that the diſtance between both is not much above a mile. They entirely command the navigation of the river, which is ſo deep at this place, as to admit ſhips of great ſize and burthen. Lord Cornwallis applied with the utmoſt diligence and induſtry to fortify theſe poſts, and to render them equally reſpectable by land, and to the water; his force amounting, in the whole, to ſomething about 7000 excellent troops.

[*To be continued.*]

Account of the late Mr JOHN POWELL.

MR Powell was born at Worceſter, bred up at the free ſchool in that city, and apprenticed to a barber and peruke maker. On the expiration of his apprenticeſhip he kept a little coffee-houſe there, but failing, came to London, and lived ſome time as a gentleman's ſervant. He was afterwards employed to keep the books of a Mr Care, an upholder in Soho, until a conteſted election happening for Worceſter, in which Mr Winnington, who was the paymaſter immediately preceding the late Lord Holland, was a candidate, that gentleman appointed Mr Powell a clerk in the navy office for voting for him. He was brought into the pay-office by the late Lord Holland, and upon his death was left, together with the Rt Hon. Charles Fox, executor to that nobleman.

PAR-

PARLIAMENT. [p. 370.]

On the 26th of May, in a committee of ways and means, Lord John Cavendiſh entered upon the arduous taſk of opening the budget of taxes. He ſaid, he had made choice of ſuch objects as he thought could well bear taxation, and be truly productive of thoſe ſums that he expected to draw from them; and he truſted they would appear as unobjectionable to the committee as they did to him.

The firſt object of taxation was, *Bills of Exchange*. The ſtamp-tax impoſed laſt year on bills of exchange had been very productive; for it produced a greater ſum than his predeceſſor expected to have drawn from it; from this he could perceive the tax was far from being burdenſome, and that it would bear an increaſe; he therefore propoſed this year to double the duty; ſo that the tax having laſt year produced 56,000 l. the additional duty would therefore amount to 56,000 l. — To the ſame tax he propoſed to ſubject all promiſſory notes, and alſo bills of exchange drawn on foreign countries. He propoſed alſo to take away an exception in the act of laſt year, which had opened a door to numberleſs evaſions. This exception was in favour of all bills of exchange drawn on demand. Under the favour of this exception ways and means had been very ingeniouſly contrived ſo to draw bills, that though it was not intended they ſhould be bills on demand, they were in fact worded as if they were actually to be paid on demand. By taking away this exception, and ſubjecting promiſſory notes to the payment of this duty, he expected to raiſe at leaſt 44,000 l.

The next tax was a ſtamp on *Receipts*. This he was convinced would produce a greater ſum than the committee could well conceive, if the act which ſhould paſs to enforce it could be ſo worded as to guard againſt evaſions. Gentlemen could ſcarcely form an idea of the immenſe number of receipts that are given in England in a year. It was true, indeed, it would be impoſſible to compel any man to take receipts; but when a very low duty ſhould be impoſed, there was ſcarcely a man who would refuſe to pay it, in order to enſure againſt a ſecond demand of payment of the ſame bill. He propoſed, in favour of the poor, to exempt from this duty all bills for leſs than 40 s.; and he was ſorry to ſay, that he believed the poor ſeldom had ſo large a ſum to receive at one time; but on all receipts for more than 40 s. and under 20 l. he would lay a ſtamp duty of 2 d.; and on all receipts for more than 20 l. a duty of 4 d. This tax would fall ſo lightly, and yet ſo generally, that he had not a doubt but it would be found an immenſe reſource to government; and as even the duty of 4 d. would not amount to more than the four hundred and ſixtieth [twelve hundredth] part of 20 l. no one could ſuppoſe it grievous or burdenſome. The produce of this tax he would take for the preſent at 250,000 l.

The next thing he propoſed to tax, was *Probates of Wills and Legacies*. On the former he propoſed an additional ſtamp-duty, which he eſtimated at 10,000 l. and on all legacies a duty of 1 l. per cent. with an exception in favour of wives and lineal deſcendents, whom he intended to exempt from the operation of this tax. He ſtated the whole ariſing from probates and legacies at 40,000 l.

He came next to *Bonds, Law Proceedings, Admiſſion to the Inns of Court, &c.* On theſe ſeveral articles he propoſed an additional ſtamp-duty. Bonds, in particular, he obſerved, called for ſuch a duty; as a bond for a ſmall ſum paid as high a duty as one for 100 l. The groſs annual produce of the additional duty on theſe bonds, &c. he eſtimated at 60,000 l.

The tax impoſed laſt year on *Stage Coaches and Diligences* had been found extremely productive; nay, ſo great was the ſpirit of competition between the proprietors, that they had abſolutely lowered their rates, by which he was encouraged to hope that they would be very able to bear an additional tax of 1½ d. per mile. This he rated at 25,000 l.

By a ſmall duty on *Contracts and Inventories*, he propoſed to raiſe 10,000 l. per annum. He remarked, that by an act paſſed in the reign of King William III. a duty had been impoſed on all contracts; but no mention was made in the act, of *agreements* to make theſe contracts; now it was his intention to ſubject ſuch previous agreements to the tax, as alſo all inventories taken with a view to any legal proceeding.

Turnpike Roads and Incloſure Bills, he ſaid, had always been exempt from the payment of duties, becauſe it was thought proper to hold out encouragement to perſons to incloſe lands; but now that

the buſineſs was reduced to a regular ſyſtem, and the proprietor received an actual benefit from the improvement of his eſtate, he propoſed a duty on all bills for appointing truſtees for turnpike roads, for making canals and navigable cuts, &c. This tax he rated at 20,000 l.

Quack Medicines he thought very proper objects of taxation; and he believed the Houſe would be ſurpriſed at the ſum that he had good grounds that a tax on them would produce. Firſt, He would have all perſons who ſold medicines, and who were not regularly bred to the profeſſion of Doctors, &c. to take out a licence; and this being done, there ſhould be a duty of 8 l. per cent. laid on the medicine, which he believed would produce annually a revenue of 15,000 l. The collection, he obſerved, might at firſt be rather difficult; there could indeed be no difficulty as to the medicines ſold under the King's patent; and as to the others, the difficulty would decreaſe daily, as experience would enable government to diſcover the means by which evaſions ſhould be practiſed.

He propoſed that all the *carriages*, not liable at preſent to any duty, ſhould be *regiſtered*, and ſubjected to a duty of 1 s. per wheel per ann. This tax would be no more than 2 s. a-year for a cart, and 4 s. for a waggon; and yet, lightly as it might be felt, it would produce annually 25,000 l.

A tax upon the *Regiſter* of *Births*, *Marriages*, and *Deaths*, he conſidered to be a matter of police as well as finance; and after allowing ſome gratuity to the curates, clerks, &c. he was of opinion, the tax would amount annually to 15,000 l.

Theſe ſums would make juſt 560,000 l.; the exact ſum neceſſary to pay the intereſt on the loan of 12,000,000 l.

Recapitulation.	£.
Bills of Exchange, -	56,000
Promiſſory Notes, - -	44,000
Receipts, - -	250,000
Probates of Wills and Legacies,	40,000
Bonds, Law Proceedings, &c.	60,000
Stage Coaches and Diligences,	25,000
Contracts and Inventories,	10,000
Turnpike-Roads and Incloſure Bills, - - -	20,000
Quack Medicines, -	15,000
Univerſal Regiſter of all Carriages,	25,000
Regiſter of Births, Marriages, and Deaths, - -	15,000
Total,	L. 560,000

His Lordſhip ſaid, he had two other objects of taxation to ſubmit to the conſideration of the committee, if they ſhould reject any of thoſe he had laid before them. Theſe were, a tax on *Weights* and *Meaſures*, and an additional duty on the *poſtage* of letters. The tax on weights and meaſures, he ſaid, would operate as a very good regulation of police, excluſive of any view to finance, as the owners would be obliged to produce their weights and meaſures to be inſpected annually, that it might be found whether they were exactly what they purported to be; and the ſtamp upon them would be beneficial to the revenue.—The additional duty of one penny on every letter ſent by the poſt, would bring in 75,000 l. a-year, out of which 25,000 l. being deducted for franks, would leave a net income of 50,000 l. to the public. However, he left it to the committee to judge whether theſe ſhould be ſubſtituted in the room of the taxes he had propoſed. His Lordſhip concluded, by moving his firſt propoſition, and moved in the whole no leſs than 44.

After a ſhort debate, the committee agreed to the reſolutions.

Next day the above reſolutions were reported to the Houſe.

When the clerk read the reſolution for impoſing a tax on wheels, Sir Ph. Clerke ſaid, that it would be a very great check on agriculture, at leaſt in the part of the country where he lived; for there it frequently happened that, though a farmer might have but one ſet of horſes, he had ſeveral carts; he had a dung-cart, a timber-cart, and a waggon; now, if he ſhould be obliged to pay for every one of theſe carriages, he muſt of courſe feel the tax very conſiderable. It was not unfrequent, on the other hand, that farmers ſhould have carts lying in their cart-houſe, of which they never made any uſe; and, conſequently, it would be a hardſhip to make them pay for a carriage from which they derived no manner of pleaſure or advantage.

Mr Dempſter paid very high compliments to Lord John Cavendiſh, for having found taxes the leaſt burdenſome of any that had ever been propoſed: there were ſome exceptions, indeed, to the wheel-tax; but he was ſatisfied to wait till the bill ſhould be brought in, and until he ſhould ſee the exceptions that the Noble Lord intended to make in it; and he had not a doubt but he would conſent to

to every exception that ſhould appear uſeful to the public. At preſent it was but juſtice to ſay of that Noble Lord, that he had made a ſhoe to fit a gouty foot, tender in every part, and with corns on every toe, a ſhoe which pinched only on one of the toes.

Sir G. Yonge underſtood, from the manner in which the Noble Lord opened his motion yeſterday, that he was willing to confine it ſolely to travelling carts; and to exempt all thoſe from it that ſhould be employed in huſbandry.

Lord John Cavendiſh ſaid, he meant no ſuch thing; he certainly had it in contemplation to ſubject the latter deſcription of carriages to the tax, as well as the former; though he was very ready to admit ſuch exceptions and modifications, as ſhould make it as little burdenſome as poſſible to the huſbandman.

On the queſtion being put, the reſolution was agreed to.—By the act, carts, or other two-wheeled carriages, employed in agriculture only, are exempted from the tax. See the Abſtract, p. 344.

On June 5. the Houſe went into a committee on the bill for impoſing a duty on bills of exchange, notes, and receipts.

Lord Newhaven aſked, if *foreign* bills of exchange were to be ſubject to the tax.

Lord J. Cavendiſh replied, that all bills drawn *in* England, on foreign parts, would certainly be liable to the duty; but that all bills drawn *in* foreign parts *on* England, would of courſe be exempt from it, as we have no power or right to make laws to bind foreigners who live out of our dominions to comply with our municipal laws.

Sir Adam Ferguſon ſaid, the tax would fall very heavy on Scotland, where the notes were for very ſmall ſums, generally under 5 l.

Lord Newhaven deſired to be informed, if the tax was to extend to bills iſſued by the Bank of England.

Lord John Cavendiſh informed the Noble Lord, that having had a meeting with ſome of the Directors of the Bank, they had ſtated to him, that there would be very great difficulties in the way of the tax, if all the bank-bills were to be ſubject to it; and therefore they had propoſed to compound for the tax at the rate of 12,000 l. a-year; to which compoſition he had acceded.

Sir George Yonge aſked if it would be permitted to all the bankers to compound, as well as the Directors of the Bank of England.

Mr Sheridan anſwered in the negative.

Lord John Cavendiſh ſaid, he thought it neceſſary to inform the committee of ſome exceptions he intended to make, which were, that guinea bank-notes (being very current in Scotland) ſhould be exempted from any duty. That ſeveral great manufactures being carried on in the northern parts of England, many ſmall notes were circulated, which notes frequently returned to the original iſſuers of them in a very ſhort ſpace of time. To remedy this he meant to propoſe, that one ſtamp ſhould ſerve for the note, though it ſhould be iſſued ever ſo often. In Birmingham alſo many notes were iſſued for ſmall ſums, the circulation of which could not be diſpenſed with, without injuring thoſe employed there. He would reduce, therefore, the duty on all notes under 10 l. to three pence.

On the report of the committee, the Houſe agreed to the clauſes impoſing duties on bills of exchange and notes.—The above exceptions are included in the act. All draughts on *demand* within ten miles of the place where drawn are exempted from the tax. The drawer is to pay the ſtamp. See the Abſtract, p. 342.

The committee then proceeded to the clauſe which impoſes a ſtamp on receipts.—This tax met with great oppoſition.

Sir C. Bamfylde ſaid, he had a petition from the city of Exeter to preſent to the Houſe againſt the tax on receipts, and ſtating, that it would operate greatly to the prejudice of trade and commerce.

The Speaker ſaid, in his opinion it was a ſtated rule to receive no petition againſt a tax.—The petition was rejected.

Lord Newhaven wiſhed to know if it was to extend to policies or underwriting.

Mr Sheridan ſaid, that it would not, as the tax was to be laid only on thoſe receipts which are not at preſent ſubject to any tax; and policies being already taxed, were not, of courſe, objects of the preſent bill.

Mr Thornton aſked, if having received bills to the amount of 500 l. from the country, he ſhould acknowledge by letter the receipt of them, ſuch acknowledgement conſidered in the light of a receipt, would ſubject the letter to the tax on receipts.

Mr Sheridan was of opinion, that in ſuch a caſe the letters would not be ſubject to the tax.

The Lord Mayor ſaid, the tax was ge-

nerally thought burdenſome and oppreſſive; and that in fact it would fall moſt heavily, where it was not intended that it ſhould operate at all — on the poor.— He therefore moved an amendment, which was, that all ſums under *five* pounds be exempted from the tax.

Mr Dempſter oppoſed the amendment; he ſaid the tax would fall extenſively, and therefore lightly on individuals.

Sir Charles Bamfylde ſaid it was a horrid tax; that it would be found highly oppreſſive, and greatly liable to evaſion.

Lord Surry could not think that an oppreſſive tax, which made no more than the 240th part of the ſum for which the receipt was to be given.

Lord John Cavendiſh ſaid, that if all receipts for ſums under 5 l. ſhould be exempted, the tax would not produce any thing like the ſum,—ſcarcely more than a fifth of the ſum for which he had given it.

The Lord Mayor's amendment was rejected, there being, Ayes 21, Noes 126.

On June 11. the ſheriffs of London preſented a petition from the city, which having been read by the clerk, appeared to be directed againſt the bill for taxing receipts.

The Lord Mayor moved, that it do lie upon the table, until the report from the committee of the whole Houſe on the above ſhould be taken into conſideration; and that then the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Common-council of London be heard by their counſel againſt ſeveral clauſes in the ſaid bill.

Sir Grey Cooper ſaid, it was not poſſible the Houſe could, conſiſtently with their own rules and orders, agree to the motion made by the Right Hon. Magiſtrate. In the very beſt of times, in 1693, a rule had been made by the Houſe of Commons, that no petition againſt taxes, calculated to raiſe the ways and means for a current year, be admitted or entertained; and if petitions from the city of London againſt taxes of that deſcription had found their way into the Houſe, it was not becauſe the Houſe ever meant to diſpenſe with this wiſe order in favour of the city of London, but becauſe the city of London, having an undoubted right to preſent petitions by the hands of the ſheriffs, the Houſe could not know the contents of ſuch petitions, till they had been firſt read by the clerk. This was not the caſe with any other place in G. Britain; for in any other caſe, petitions muſt be read by a member, who could not preſent them, without having firſt obtained the leave of the Houſe for bringing them up. Now, as in the latter caſe, no petition againſt taxes, ſuch as he had above deſcribed, would be received by the Houſe; ſo the petition of the city of London, after having been preſented by the ſheriffs, ought not to be entertained, contrary to the known order of the Houſe; and therefore he moved an amendment, That all the words in the motion *after* theſe "that it do lie upon the table," be left out.

The Lord Mayor ſaid, that the petition was only againſt certain clauſes of the bill, and not againſt the whole of it; that as one part of the bill was for laying an additional duty on bills of exchange, which had been taxed in a former year, he thought he might be permitted to ſay, that the order of the Houſe did not ſtand in the way of an oppoſition to the tax by counſel; the city had been heard by counſel againſt the bill for improving the houſe-tax, and why ſhould it not be heard alſo on the preſent occaſion?

Lord North ſaid, the two caſes were widely different: when the bill for amending and explaining the houſe-tax act was brought in, it was not to raiſe a ſupply for the ſervice of the current year, but to make good deficiencies in grants of former years, and to make the tax produce as much as it was originally given for; and therefore the rule of the Houſe did not apply to ſuch a caſe: but though bills of exchange had been taxed laſt year, ſtill, as the additional duty of this year was for the ways and means of this very year, the order of the Houſe applied in this caſe in its full force; and therefore the amendment propoſed by his Hon. Friend was abſolutely neceſſary.

Mr Alderman Sawbridge ſupported, and Mr Fox oppoſed the motion.

Governor Johnſtone ſaid, he liked the tax very well, and for aught he had heard againſt it, he would give it his ſupport: but ſtill he did not with that a too nice obſervance of order ſhould ſtand in the way of petitions; ſuch an order had loſt America to this country. He was willing to liſten to information; and therefore he wiſhed the city might be heard by counſel. If he found the objections of the citizens ſolid and reaſonable, he would ſupport them to the utmoſt of his power; but if he found them to be the reſult of faction or ſelf-intereſt, he would

oppoſe

oppoſe them with all the firmneſs he was maſter of. He remembered the ſaying of an old member of that Houſe, who uſed to ſay, that the landed intereſt, or country-gentlemen, would ſuffer themſelves to be fleeced like ſheep without murmuring; but that the mercantile intereſt was like a boar, who would make the pariſh echo with his grunting, if but a ſingle briſtle was plucked from his back.

Sir G. Cooper's amendment was carried, there being for it 178, againſt it 13.

The report from the committee was then brought up and read.

Sir Cecil Wray ſaid, that having been inſtructed by above 4000 of his conſtituents to oppoſe this tax, he muſt, in obedience to their inſtructions, move, that the bill be recommitted, in order that it ſhould be ſo amended, as that the many objections he had to it might be removed; and he obeyed theſe inſtructions with the greater alacrity, as without having received any inſtructions, he would moſt certainly have oppoſed the tax; for to him it appeared highly objectionable. No tax could, in his opinion, be juſt and productive, that was laid on perſons, and not on expenditure, as was the caſe with the preſent tax. He wiſhed that parliament would lean a little lighter on the commercial intereſt, and that it would tax the lands ſtill higher, if it were only to mulct thoſe who had been ſuch ſticklers for the American war, that had rent the Britiſh empire. He wiſhed alſo that parliament, in ſome degree, would give up the privilege of franking.

Mr Fox ſaid, he alſo had been inſtructed by his conſtituents to oppoſe this tax; but though their inſtructions ſhould ever be gratefully and reſpectfully received, ſtill he never had been of opinion, that a member of that Houſe was bound to obey the inſtructions of his conſtituents. This he had often declared to them in Weſtminſter Hall, and from the huſtings in Covent Garden. He agreed with his honourable colleague, that a tax on perſons, and not on expenditure, was a bad and a partial one, and this was his very reaſon for liking the preſent tax; for in fact it fell preciſely where it ought to fall, on expences, or, in other words, on payments.—As to the privilege of franking, poſſibly the time was at hand when it might be neceſſary to renounce it; but if it was to be given up, it ought not to be relinquiſhed by halves, but wholly and without reſerve, the members not retaining even the privilege of receiving the letters directed to themſelves free of poſtage. As to the general complaint againſt the tax, it was rather in favour of it than againſt it; for it proved how generally, and therefore how lightly, it would extend.

The motion for recommitting the bill was negatived without a diviſion.

On the third reading, June 12. Sir Cecil Wray again oppoſed the receipt clauſe. He ſaid, he diſliked the tax himſelf; but what weighed much more with him, his conſtituents diſliked it, and had inſtructed him to oppoſe it; and therefore he moved, that the clauſe be left out.

Mr Alderman Sawbridge ſaid, it was not of any moment to the Houſe, what might be his own private opinion reſpecting the tax; it was ſufficient for him, that his conſtituents thought it a bad one, and had inſtructed him to oppoſe it. It was his duty to obey their inſtructions; and in obedience to them he was determined to vote for the rejection of the clauſe.

Mr Baker ſaid, this was not the time to diſcuſs the queſtion, whether members of parliament were bound to obey implicitly the commands or inſtructions of their conſtituents; for his part, he had always maintained that they were not, and upon this principle, which was admitted by all, that a member tho' elected locally, repreſented generally; and therefore, as according to this principle, he was the repreſentative of the people, he could not be bound by the inſtructions of local conſtituents: To theſe indeed he would always pay the greateſt deference; he would confer with them, reaſon with them; in a word, he would do any thing for them, except ſacrificing his own judgement, and giving a vote againſt the dictates of his reaſon and his conſcience. He had been inſtructed by his conſtituents to vote againſt this tax; and yet he would not hetitate to vote for it; and though it might appear ſtrange, he believed that in ſupporting the tax, he was in fact, and in truth, complying with the intention of thoſe who had inſtructed him to oppoſe it. To clear up the paradox, he ſaid, that having conferred with his conſtituents, he found that their objection to the tax was founded on the idea that it would fall on the ſeller; now, from what he knew of the bill, he was convinced that this objection was ill-founded; and therefore as it was the only

only objection which his conſtituents had to the tax, he knew that they muſt like it, as well as he did, when they ſhould find that the buyer, not the ſeller was to pay it.

Mr Bacon ſubſcribed to all that Mr Baker ſaid: And he went a little farther; for he ſaid he ſhould not oppoſe the tax, even if it was to be paid by the ſeller; and all the good he would wiſh to his conſtituents in ſuch caſe, would be that they might be called upon a thouſand times to pay it; becauſe they would give receipts only when they took money; ſo of courſe the ſpirit of his wiſh was, that their trade might increaſe.

Mr W. Pitt declared, that notwithſtanding all that had been ſaid againſt the tax, he determined to give it his ſupport. His reaſon was this: In the preſent ſtate of the country, it was impoſſible to find any tax unattended with one of theſe two inconveniencies, of being burdenſome, or of being unproductive; from all that he had heard about the receipt-tax, he was fully of opinion that there was more danger of its being unproductive, than of its being burdenſome and oppreſſive. He did not think it could be oppreſſive, when no man was compelled to take a receipt; but from this very circumſtance, and from the novelty of ſuch a tax, he was afraid it would not be productive; at all events, he was reſolved to give it his ſupport.

Gov. Johnſtone warned the houſe to proceed with caution in a buſineſs which was of a very delicate nature. There were two things very dangerous to meddle with, religion and taxes. There never was a bill of which he approved more heartily, than the bill that paſſed in favour of the Roman Catholics; but ſtill, would any man have voted for it, if he could have foreſeen the dreadful conſequences that it produced? The cyder tax he thought a good one; but though it was carried with a high hand in parliament, the voice of the people cauſed a modification of it. He thought the preſent tax a good one; but he wiſhed the Chancellor of the Exchequer would turn his thoughts to find ſome other, rather than attempt to force it down the throats of the people, when they ſhewed ſuch a diſlike to it.

Mr Fox replied very warmly to the Governor. He ſaid, a more effectual way to breed diſputes, and make them produce diſagreeable effects, was to make the people think they could get tax-laws repealed whenever they ſhould think proper to ſay they diſliked them; and therefore he thought the language of the honourable member blameable, but ſtill more ſo, when he in conſcience thought the tax a good one. He declared that had he been able to have foreſeen the conſequences that followed the paſſing of the bill in favour of the Roman Catholics, he nevertheleſs would have voted for it, becauſe it was not founded in policy, but in humanity and juſtice; and to the honour of the Houſe, to the honour of the nation, that act ſtill remained a law of the land; a monument not only of the juſtice, but of the ſpirit of the country, in ſtemming the prejudices and illiberality of the lower order of the people, and a warning to others how they attempted to force the legiſlature to repeal any law. He then reaſoned upon the tax, and proved that the buyer only was to pay the tax.

Col. Norton and Mr Martyn oppoſed the tax, at the deſire of their conſtituents.

Mr Sheridan ſaid, it was in vain to reaſon to gentlemen who thought themſelves bound not to be convinced.

Mr G. Onſlow ſpoke alſo againſt the tax, becauſe he was inſtructed ſo to do; but he did not appear to be perſonally an enemy to it. He ſuggeſted, that it would be proper to make the ſtationer an allowance of one ſtamp in 12 or 15 for diſcount, by which means nothing would be paid by the purchaſer to any one but to government; whereas at preſent the ſtationer charges twopence halfpenny for a twopenny ſtamp, by which one fifth more is levied upon the public than ever reaches the exchequer.

The Houſe divided on the motion for rejecting the clauſe, when there appeared for rejecting, 40; againſt it, 145. The clauſe was of courſe agreed to. By a clauſe in the bill, all receipts containing words to this effect, "in full of all demands," were declared to be void, unleſs made on a 4 d. ſtamp.

Lord Mahon moved a proviſo, that nothing in the clauſe ſhould prevent ſuch receipts being admitted as proof of the payment of the ſum ſpecified in the receipts, though they ſhould be only on a 2 d. ſtamp.—The proviſo was received and agreed to; as were all the other clauſes; and the bill then paſſed without farther oppoſition. See the Abſtract, p. 342.

In a committee on the quack-medi-

cine

cine bill, June 26. when the chairman came to the clauſe impoſing a neceſſity on the venders of ſuch medicines to take out a licence, an exception was offered by Mr Sheridan in favour of thoſe who had ſerved a regular apprenticeſhip to an apothecary, ſurgeon, or who had kept a druggiſt or chymiſt's ſhop for three years, or who had taken out a diploma in either of the Univerſities of Oxford or Cambridge. Mr Arden ſaid, that no diploma was taken out at either of thoſe Univerſities: Mr Sheridan then changed the expreſſion, and inſerted the words, "or who were graduates in phyſic in either of the Univerſities."

Sir Adam Ferguſon ſaid, he was as little ſubject to nationality as any man; but he could ſee no reaſon for this exception in favour of the two learned Engliſh ſeminaries, which, while it was only mere matter of compliment to them, ſeemed to be a reflection on the Univerſity of Edinburgh. It was ſaid, indeed, that degrees were very eaſily obtained, or even purchaſed, in ſome of the Scotch Univerſities; but he was convinced, that if this was applied to the Colleges of Edinburgh, it was without foundation; and as it was allowed on all hands that Edinburgh was the firſt medical ſchool in the world, and that even Engliſh graduates, after having taken their degrees at home, reſorted to it in order to qualify themſelves to purſue their profeſſion; he was clearly of opinion, that the exception relative to Oxford and Cambridge ought to be totally omitted, or elſe extended to Edinburgh.—After a little converſation, it was agreed that the exception ſhould be left out.—The bill was agreed to, as likewiſe the other tax-bills. See p. 343.

The Magiſtrates of Edinburgh preſented Sir Adam with the freedom of the city, and the Univerſity conferred upon him the degree of Doctor of Laws, for his conduct on the above occaſion.

Under authority of an act of parliament, perſons brewing beer for their own uſe, and not for ſale, are permitted to compound with the board of exciſe, at ſo much a head in their family, for the real duty on malt they thus conſume, in conſequence of which they are freed from the viſits of the exciſe officers; but great frauds having ariſen under this power of compounding, to the great deſtruction of the revenue, Lord J Cavendiſh, June 16. moved, that this power of compounding ought to ceaſe.

Mr Hill and Mr Kenyon oppoſed the motion.

Sir G. Cornwall ſupported the motion. He however expreſſed a hope, that the Noble Lord would contrive ſome means to reſtrain the power of the officers of exciſe within as narrow limits as poſſible. The motion was agreed to, and a bill ordered in.—The bill was afterwards paſſed.

In a committee, June 5. on the Scots corn petition, Mr Pulteney in the chair, Mr Dempſter preſented a report from a committee above ſtairs relative to the ſtate of the crops in Scotland. The report was read; from which it appeared, that the diſtreſs of the poor in many of the northernmoſt counties of Scotland, in conſequence of an almoſt total failure of the crop, and the ſcarcity of corn ariſing from this failure, was ſuch as to be ſhocking to ſenſibility; the people had ſubſiſted chiefly on peaſe, which they procured from England, but this ſupply was too ſcanty for their relief. Mr Dempſter then moved for leave to bring in a bill to enable his Majeſty, by and with the advice of his privy council, to allow the importation of corn into North Britain, for four months, from the 3d of September next.

The Marquis of Graham ſeconded the motion; he ſaid, that this was a very critical ſituation for the people of Scotland, and eventually for the whole iſland; for while famine ſtared them in the face, America held out irreſiſtible temptations to them to emigrate; and no doubt they would embrace them if not prevented by the wiſdom of the legiſlature.

Sir Joſeph Mawbey objected to the motion: He ſaid, that if any ſuch bill ſhould paſs, great abuſes would ariſe from it; the Scotch would procure great quantities of corn from England, and having converted it to the purpoſes of diſtilling, would afterwards be able to underſell the Engliſh manufacturer in the ſale of Britiſh ſpirits.

Lord John Cavendiſh gave his hearty concurrence to the motion; but at the ſame time he obſerved, that it would be neceſſary to take care that while relief was held out to the north, it ſhould be ſo managed as the ſouth ſhould not be injured by it.

Sir Adam Ferguſon did not deſire relief for Scotland on any other terms; for he would be ſorry that England ſhould be diſtreſſed by the meaſure, which

which was intended to be an inſtrument of relief to Scotland.

Sir George Howard bore his teſtimony to the diſtreſſed ſtate of Scotland; for to his knowledge, there was ice to the thickneſs of a dollar in the corn fields; ſo that when the harveſt ſeaſon came, there were no other rewards of the huſbandman's toil, than empty huſks.

Lord John Cavendiſh, in order to relieve Scotland, without injuring England, moved an amendment, that the word *foreign* be inſerted before the word corn, which it was the intention of the committee to impower his Majeſty to permit to be imported. The amendment was admitted without a diviſion; and the motion, with the amendment, paſſed without any further oppoſition.

Mr Dempſter then moved, that the commiſſioners of the land-tax in Scotland be directed to pay 14 l. per cent. of the land-tax, towards purchaſing corn for the relief of the poor of that part of the united kingdoms. This motion was likewiſe agreed to.

Mr Dempſter ſaid, he had another motion to make, which he would do in obedience to the committee of which he had been chairman, though in his private capacity he did not think it would be proper to urge it. The motion was, that a bounty of 4 s. per quarter ſhould be given on the firſt 60,000 quarters of corn that ſhould be imported into Scotland. This motion was made; but not having been ſupported, it was given up.

Inſtead of it, Mr Dempſter moved an addreſs to his Majeſty, ſtating the diſtreſs of Scotland, praying him to give ſuch relief as to his wiſdom ſhould ſeem meet, and aſſuring him that the Houſe would make good the expence.—This motion paſſed without oppoſition; and Mr Pulteney having quitted the chair, the Houſe was reſumed.

Mr Fraſer roſe, and ſaid, that having the honour to repreſent a large and reſpectable county, towards the relief of the poor of which the reſolutions juſt agreed to would operate, his feelings and his humanity obliged him to ſit ſilent till that moment. He would not preſume to direct the Houſe in their proceedings on ſo unfortunate and ſo preſſing an occaſion; but now that they had agreed to the reſolutions, he roſe to expreſs his gratitude to the Houſe, and to thank them for what they had done. He ſhould ſoon, he ſaid, retire to the part of Scotland ſo much talked of in the converſation that had been juſt held, and he would pledge himſelf, that no part of the money they had been pleaſed to grant ſhould be miſapplied or perverted from the purpoſe for which it had been given. If, contrary to his expectation, it ſhould hereafter turn out, that there had been any abuſe or miſmanagement in the application of it, when he ſhould return to that Houſe next ſeſſion of parliament, he pledged himſelf to be anſwerable for it.

On June 17. Sir Cecil Wray brought up a petition from the people called Quakers, in behalf of the unfortunate negroes, the traffick of whoſe perſons they prayed, for the ſake of humanity, to have aboliſhed. Sir Cecil ſtated, that a bill now depending in the Houſe, relative to the ſlave-trade, had ſuggeſted to theſe humane reſpectable people, the idea of preſenting ſuch a petition.

Lord North ſaid, he could have no objection to the bringing up of the petition; indeed its object and tendency ought to recommend it to every humane breaſt; and it did credit to the feelings of the moſt mild and humane ſet of Chriſtians in the world, from whom it came. But ſtill he was afraid that it would be found impoſſible to aboliſh the ſlave-trade, againſt which the petition was ſo juſtly directed; for it was a trade which had, in ſome meaſure, become neceſſary to almoſt every nation in Europe; and as it would be next to an impoſſibility to induce them all to give it up, and renounce it for ever, ſo he was apprehenſive that the wiſhes of the humane petitioners could not be accompliſhed. As to the bill then in the Houſe, which had given riſe to the petition, it mentioned the ſlave-trade, only for the purpoſe of prohibiting the ſervants of the African committee from engaging in it, to the great detriment of the Company. The petition was then brought up and read, and appeared to be the act of the general meeting of the Quakers aſſembled annually at Whitſuntide.

Sir Cecil Wray ſaid, he went heart and hand with the petitioners; and wiſhed that ſomething might be done towards aboliſhing an infamous traffic, that diſgraced humanity, whilſt it heaped miſfortunes on a devoted race of our fellow-creatures. He concluded by moving, that the petition do lie upon the table. The motion paſſed without oppoſition.—See the Petition, p. 523. ſee alſo vol. 44. p. 575.

Account

Account of the original Conſtitution of the PARLIAMENT *of* SCOTLAND.

[From Thoughts on the Origin of Feudal Tenures, and the Deſcent of Ancient Peerages in Scotland. Addreſſed to * * *. By George Wallace, Eſq; Advocate.]

IN ancient times, attendance in parliament was accounted a burden, not eſteemed an honour. All vaſſals who held their property of the crown, were bound to aſſiſt with their counſel in that high court: And this ſervice opening not a road either to preferment or to pleaſure, a great unwillingneſs, not wholly unnatural, was very generally entertained to diſcharging an obligation, which could not be fulfilled without travelling, perhaps, from the remoteſt regions of the kingdom, and during tempeſtuous weather, at a conſiderable expence, by paths almoſt impaſſable, and through a country exceedingly barbarous, not affording tolerable accommodations, or infeſted by hoſtile names. Performance of it was obliged to be compelled by penalties, and fines were impoſed on abſentees. It is not, therefore, in itſelf likely, that men would covet an attainment, which, inſtead of bringing advantages, bound to a labour from which people were generally ſolicitous to be exempt.

A peerage I underſtand to be "a ſtate or dignity merely perſonal, which confers, on the perſons elevated to it, an excluſive and hereditary right to ſit and to vote in the legiſlative body, by blood, and without election." Every freeholder, or owner of lands held of the Sovereign in chief, was intitled, as well as bound, by the laws, and by the conſtitution of the parliament of Scotland, to ſit and to vote in that aſſembly; and a diſtinction was not anciently made between large or valuable, and little or inconſiderable eſtates. Every freehold, ſmall as well as great, undignified as well as dignified, both beſtowed a right, and impoſed an obligation on its owner, to attend in the general council of the nation. Repreſentation and election were not introduced into counties till the year 1587, in which a ſtatute was paſſed, eſtabliſhing that mode, and excluding the freeholders from ſitting in perſon. The view, therefore, in which titles were granted before 1587, could not be to confer inelective ſeats in parliament. The rarity of objects, and even the difficulty of acquiring them, both enhance their value, and augment the eagerneſs with which they are purſued: Commonneſs, and the increaſed facility with which, in conſequence of it, things can be procured, detract from their eſtimation: And almoſt every perſon who choſe might obtain a ſeat without ſuing to Majeſty for the favour. A ſingle acre, an eaſy purchaſe, beſtowed a good qualification; and an ordinary poſſeſſion, attainable by all the world, could not form either a rare diſtinction, or a prized acquirement.

Dukes, Marquiſſes, Earls, Lords, Barons, Freeholders; all enjoyed hereditary voices in the ſupreme convention. The characteriſtical difference, by which thoſe ranks were diſcriminated from each other, could not conſiſt in a common quality which pertained equally to them all. Either every proprietor of a fief held of the King muſt be aſſerted to have been Lord of a peerage, or you will not find that order in the old parliaments of Scotland. The barons and the freeholders, it is univerſally allowed, were merely commoners. The other members, the Lords, the Earls, the Marquiſſes, and the Dukes, might be noble, but, conſidered in their legiſlative relation, could not be Peers. In fact, I believe that no inſtance can be produced of any nobleman, who was not poſſeſſed of conſiderable landed property, and, of courſe, intitled to ſit in the ſenate, before his elevation to that degree.

The Scotch parliament, your Lordſhip knows, conſiſted of three different eſtates; the ſpiritual faculty, or the clergy; the landed intereſt, or the Barons; and the trading people, or the burgeſſes: And the nobility, inſtead of ſitting there in a houſe by themſelves, or of forming an eſtate diſtinct from the other eſtates, conſtituted a part of that compoſed by the landed intereſt, of all the freeholders indiſcriminately, nobles as well as commons.

All the three eſtates met in one chamber. The members formed only one houſe. Their names were entered in one roll: And even their votes were commonly given promiſcuouſly. One ſpeaker preſided over the whole: The ſpeeches made in parliament were all addreſſed to one preſident: and this dignity was at laſt annexed to the chancellorſhip.

Each eſtate poſſeſſed a diſtinct autho-

rity, and, independent of the other two, might hold conſultations apart by itſelf on any matter brought before parliament. The individuals preſent, who belonged to it, on gathering the ſentiments of the body, which were both determined and collected by majority of voices, might diſſent from reſolutions taken by the other two bodies, and, by exerciſing that right, could put a negative on any act propoſed by them. No bill, from which any one eſtate, or a majority of it, entered a diſſent, could paſs into a law. But, my Lord, in this particular, the Peers enjoyed not a corporate capacity: Even the whole body, concurring in one unanimous voice, poſſeſſed not the prerogative of controul. Their ſuffrages were mingled among thoſe of the other freeholders; and no ſuperiority pertained to the nobles in that reſpect. For many years after 1587, the nobility had not yet been diſſevered from the gentry. It was not earlier than 1689, that, on the abolition of Epiſcopacy, they were finally erected into an eſtate diſtinct from both the barons and the burgeſſes.

Every freehold, before 1587, gave an inelective ſeat in parliament: That court conſiſted of three eſtates: The nobility formed only an incorporated part of that eſtate, which was compoſed indiſcriminately of all the freeholders; and they poſſeſſed no more than a numerical proportion of the aggregate authority belonging to the collective body of barons. Theſe facts are not probable conjectures merely; they amount, my Lord, to deciſive proofs, that, in ancient times, an order of men, who could juſtly be termed Peers, exiſted not in Scotland. Every particular recorded about that ſenate, thoſe which are trivial, no leſs than thoſe which are important, concur to eſtabliſh the propoſition. Several ſtriking circumſtances, which ſeem hardly explicable on any other ſuppoſition, and which, therefore, will be admitted to confirm it, ſhall afterwards be mentioned. Meanwhile, your Lordſhip's penetration muſt already have anticipated the concluſion to which that principle leads, and which renders it of moment: I mean, my Lord, that, from the way in which titles of honour deſcended before the year 1587, no juſt inference can be drawn concerning the line in which peerages of parliament are deſcendible at preſent; or, in other words, that, in determining on claims entered to the latter, little, or rather no regard ought to be paid to ancient poſſeſſion of the former. The ſubſtantial dignities, which in our days are enjoyed by the hereditary counſellors of the Engliſh crown, and which aggrandiſe them, are materially different from thoſe honorary appellations which were borne of old by the Scotch nobles; and a concluſive argument cannot be brought from things which had an exiſtence to ſuch as were not in being. I infer, that every Scotch honour, which appears to have been poſſeſſed by a female before 1587, muſt not be erected on that pretext into a feminine peerage.

Particulars of the Life of William Wynne Ryland. [p. 388.]

MR Ryland was the eldeſt of the ſeven ſons of the late Mr Edward Ryland, copperplate printer in the Old Bailey.

Mr Ryland, the elder, was a native of Wales; and before quitting the country, he had experienced ſeveral acts of kindneſs from the late Sir Watkin Williams Wynne; who happened jocoſely to ſay, that if Mr Ryland ſhould marry, he ſhould expect the compliment of being aſked to become ſponſor for his firſt ſon. Some years after Mr Ryland married, and the circumſtance of his wife being delivered of a male child, was no ſooner communicated to Sir Watkin, than with his accuſtomed good-humour and politeneſs, he accepted an invitation to be preſent at the baptiſm; and with the approbation of the Baronet, the boy was, in compliment to him, named William Wynne.

In conſideration of a very genteel premium, the celebrated Mr Francis Ravenet, who then lived at Lambeth, took young Ryland as an apprentice, and in a ſhort time diſcovered in him very extraordinary prognoſtics of future excellency. Mr Ravenet was not deceived: for the natural talents of his pupil became daily more ſplendid by a very cloſe ſtudy and application.—During his apprenticeſhip young Ryland engraved a head of Sir Watkin Williams Wynne, which was eſteemed a production of ſingular merit for ſo young an artiſt; and this was followed by many other juvenile performances, executed with uncommon taſte, delicacy, and truth of expreſſion.

Soon after the expiration of his apprenticeſhip, Mr Ryland ſet out to viſit

viſit the French and Italian ſchools, in company with Mr Gabriel Smith, an artiſt of great merit, and Mr Joſeph Howard, afterwards a merchant in the city, but who is now retired to his eſtate in Cornwall, with both of whom he had been ſchool-fellow. During the few years of his reſidence abroad, he purſued the ſtudy of his favourite art with unremitting aſſiduity and attention, and greatly improved himſelf in manual operation by exerciſing his talents under the direction of the moſt celebrated artiſts. His motive was improvement rather than profit; but being maſter of ſo fine a genius, and of ſuch vaſt powers of execution, he gained not only very diſtinguiſhed profeſſional celebrity, but large pecuniary emoluments. Our young artiſt had not been any conſiderable time in France, before he obtained an honorary gold medal from the Academy at Paris; and by the members of the Academy at Rome he was received with ſuch reſpect as was due to a young man endowed with qualifications that could not fail to render him eminently conſpicuous among the admirers of the fine arts.

Upon the return of Mr Ryland to England, he introduced the admired art of engraving copper-plates to yield an impreſſion reſembling drawings in chalk. Though in this branch of engraving he cannot claim the merit of originality, it is a ſpecies of ingenuity in which he has abundantly ſurpaſſed all competition. Being ſome time afterwards patronized by the Earl of Bute, and recommended by him to his Majeſty, he was rewarded by a grant of 200 l. per ann. The three firſt of Mr Ryland's capital productions, after being honoured with the royal patronage, were, a whole length figure of the King, one of the Queen, and another of Lord Bute, from the paintings of Ramſay. Among a vaſt number of other pieces, all of which exhibit inconteſtible proofs of a maſterly genius, are, a fine likeneſs of her Majeſty, ſmiling with ineffable expreſſion of goodneſs upon an infant ſleeping in her arms, and a picture expreſſive of a ſtory in Plutarch, the ſubſtance of which is as follows: A youth pining with love towards his mother-in-law, a young woman of exquiſite beauty, but endeavouring to conceal the cauſe of his diſquietude, a phyſician is ſuppoſed to be feeling the pulſe of his enamoured patient, the cauſe of whoſe complaint he diſcovers, and points out the object of his paſſion; whereupon the father propoſes to relinquiſh his wife, as the only expedient for preventing his ſon from falling a victim to the violence of unconquerable deſire. In this piece the paſſions are admirably expreſſed, and diſcriminated by touches the moſt delicately refined.

The laſt time Mr Ryland engaged in public buſineſs, was in a print ſhop in the Strand, where he had every proſpect of ſucceſs; but being fond of a private life, where he might have leiſure to "purſue coy ſcience to her laſt retreat," he declined this, and retired to Pimlico. From Pimlico he removed to Knightſbridge; and while he reſided there, he committed that unhappy act, by which he has ruined his reputation as a man; but his name as an artiſt will ever be held in the higheſt eſtimation. Of late years his principal employment has been upon engravings, after the deſigns of Angelica Kauffman, to imitate chalk drawings.

This unfortunate man has ſix children, four of whom were in France for education at the time of his apprehenſion; to which place, it is ſaid he made conſiderable remittances, as in caſe he had been able to eſcape from the purſuit of juſtice, he purpoſed taking up his reſidence in that country; being more particularly led thereto from the reputation which his acquaintance, Mr Brookſhaw, has acquired there in a ſhort time, after having laboured here in obſcurity for a number of years, to an eminent printſeller in Fleet-ſtreet, at the ſlender ſtipend of 25 s. per week, but who is now ſo honoured and encouraged in France, that he is not only enrolled a member of the firſt ſocieties in that country, but from the encouragement he receives in his profeſſion, enabled to live in the greateſt degree of ſplendour.

As a proof of Mr Ryland's propenſity to encourage the polite arts, we think it neceſſary only to mention the following inſtance; he has entirely at his own expence educated a young lady, who is allied to him, in all the elegant accompliſhments of the age, and from the inſtructions given by himſelf, and his employing the moſt eminent maſters to cultivate her taſte in drawing and painting, ſhe is expected to obtain a high rank in the catalogue of modern artiſts.

An intimate friend of Mr Ryland's, who died a few years ago, bequeathed

him one of the eleven ſhares of the Liverpool waterworks, which are each deemed at this time to be worth near 10,000l. To engroſs the remaining ſhares, or at leaſt to increaſe his property in theſe works, is ſaid to have been the object of Mr Ryland's purſuit; and it is ſuppoſed, that to enable himſelf to attain this point, he was induced to the conduct which brought him to his unhappy end.

The following very intereſting remarks on the extraordinary ſtate of the Atmoſphere have been lately publiſhed at Paris.

FOR a conſiderable time paſt the weather has been very remarkable here; a kind of hot fog obſcures the atmoſphere, and gives the ſun much of that dull red appearance which the wintry fogs ſometimes produce. The fog is not peculiar to Paris; thoſe who are come lately from Rome ſay, that it is as thick and hot in Italy, and that even the top of the Alps is covered with it, and travellers and letters from Spain affirm the ſame of that kingdom. Some people of abilities declare they never remember the like; and the timid, who think of the recent misfortunes of Calabria, dream of earthquakes and vaſt revolutions, &c. &c. Happily for the age, there are too many enlightened people at preſent to ſuffer theſe things to ſpread ſo univerſally, as, to the great benefit of the prieſthood (here), they formerly did, though it is remarked even now that the churches and ſaints are more reſpectfully attended than uſual, and that the fear of impending calamities has occaſioned one of the literati of the Academy of Sciences to write the following letter, and have it inſerted in the Journal de Paris.

To the authors of the Journal.——It is known to you, gentlemen, that for ſome days paſt people have been inceſſantly inquiring what is the occaſion of the thick dry fog which almoſt conſtantly covers the heavens? And as this queſtion is particularly put to aſtronomers, I think myſelf obliged to ſay a few words on the ſubject, more eſpecially ſince a kind of terror begins to ſpread in ſociety. It is ſaid by ſome, that the diſaſters in Calabria were preceded by ſimilar weather, and by others, that a dangerous comet reigns at preſent. In 1773 I experienced how faſt theſe kind of conjectures, which begin amongſt the ignorant even in the moſt enlightened ages, proceed from mouth to mouth, till they reach the beſt ſocieties, and find their way even to the public prints. The multitude therefore may eaſily be ſuppoſed to draw ſtrange concluſions when they ſee the ſun of a blood colour, ſhed a melancholy light, and cauſe a moſt ſultry heat.

This however is nothing more than a very natural effect from a hot ſun after a long ſucceſſion of heavy rain. The firſt impreſſion of heat has neceſſarily and ſuddenly rarefied a ſuperabundance of watery particles with which the earth was deeply impregnated, and given them, as they roſe, a dimneſs and rarefaction not uſual to common fogs.

This effect, which ſeems to me very natural, is not ſo very new; it is at moſt not above nineteen years ſince there was a like example, which period too brings the moon in the ſame poſition on the ſame days, and which appears to have ſome influence on the ſeaſons. Among the meteorological obſervations of the academy for the month of July 1764, I find the following: The beginning of this month was wet, and the latter part dry; and, from the 2d to the 9th, the wind continued in the north. The mornings were foggy, and the atmoſphere in a ſmoke during the day.—This, you perceive, bears a great reſemblance to the latter end of our June, ſo that it is not an unheard of or forgotten thing. In 1764 they had afterwards ſtorms and hail, and nothing worſe need be feared in 1783. I have the honour to be, &c.

DE LA LANDE,
de l'Acad. des Sciences.

ANECDOTE of Dr Sir JOHN HILL.

IN the year 1759, Sir John Hill wrote a pamphlet addreſſed to Mr Garrick, charging him with pronouncing the letter *I* like *U*, as in *virtue*, and ſome other words. In anſwer to which the Britiſh Roſcius wrote the following epigram:

Dear Doctor,
If 'tis true, as you ſay, that I've injured a letter,
I'll change my note ſoon, and, I hope, for the better.
May the juſt rights of letters, as well as of men,
Hereafter be fix'd by the tongue and the pen;
Moſt devoutly I wiſh they may both have their due,
And that *I* may be never miſtaken for *U*.

NEW

NEW BOOKS.

Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres. By Hugh Blair, D. D. continued. [p. 311.]

IN treating of the ſublime in compoſition, Dr Blair ſhews, that the object of the deſcription muſt be in itſelf fitted to raiſe ſublime emotions, and that it muſt be deſcribed with ſtrength, conciſeneſs, and ſimplicity. We ſhall lay before our Readers what he ſays on *the proper ſelection of circumſtances in deſcription.*

"I have ſpoken of ſimplicity and conciſeneſs, as eſſential to ſublime writing. In my general deſcription of it, I mentioned ſtrength, as another neceſſary requiſite. The ſtrength of deſcription ariſes, in a great meaſure, from a ſimple conciſeneſs; but it ſuppoſes alſo ſomething more; namely, a proper choice of circumſtances in the deſcription, ſo as to exhibit the object in its full and moſt ſtriking point of view. For every object has ſeveral faces, ſo to ſpeak, by which it may be preſented to us, according to the circumſtances with which we ſurround it; and it will appear eminently ſublime, or not, in proportion as all theſe circumſtances are happily choſen, and of a ſublime kind. Here lies the great art of the writer; and indeed, the great difficulty of ſublime deſcription. If the deſcription be too general, and diveſted of circumſtances, the object appears in a faint light; it makes a feeble impreſſion, or no impreſſion at all, on the reader. At the ſame time, if any trivial or improper circumſtances are mingled, the whole is degraded.

A ſtorm or tempeſt, for inſtance, is a ſublime object in nature. But, to render it ſublime in deſcription, it is not enough, either to give us mere general expreſſions concerning the violence of the tempeſt, or to deſcribe its common, vulgar effects, in overthrowing trees and houſes. It muſt be painted with ſuch circumſtances as fill the mind with great and awful ideas. This is very happily done by Virgil, in the following paſſage:

Ipſe Pater, media nimborum in nocte, coruſca
Fulmina molitur dextra: quo maxima motu
Terra tremit: fugere feræ, & mortalia corda
Per gentes humilis ſtravit pavor; Ille flagranti
Aut Atho, aut Rhodopen, aut alta Ceraunia telo
Dejicit.——————

Georg. i.

Every circumſtance in this noble deſcription is the production of an imagination heated and aſtoniſhed with the grandeur of the object. If there be any defect, it is in the words immediately following thoſe I have quoted; "Ingeminant Auſtri, et denſiſſimus imber;" where the tranſition is made too haſtily, I am afraid, from the preceding ſublime images, to a thick ſhower, and the blowing of the ſouth wind; and ſhews how difficult it frequently is, to deſcend with grace, without ſeeming to fall.

The high importance of the rule which I have been now giving, concerning the proper choice of circumſtances, when deſcription is meant to be ſublime, ſeems to me not to have been ſufficiently attended to. It has, however, ſuch a foundation in nature, as renders the leaſt deflexion from it fatal. When a writer is aiming at the beautiful only, his deſcriptions may have improprieties in them, and yet be beautiful ſtill. Some trivial, or misjudged circumſtances, can be overlooked by the reader; they make only the difference of more or leſs; the gay, or pleaſing emotion, which he has raiſed, ſubſiſts ſtill. But the caſe is quite different with the ſublime. There, one trifling circumſtance, one mean idea, is ſufficient to deſtroy the whole charm. This is owing to the nature of the emotion aimed at by ſublime deſcription, which admits of no mediocrity, and cannot ſubſiſt in a middle ſtate; but muſt either highly tranſport us, or, if unſucceſsful in the execution, leave us greatly diſguſted, and diſpleaſed. We attempt to riſe along with the writer; the imagination is awakened, and put upon the ſtretch; but it requires to be ſupported; and if, in the midſt of its effort, you deſert it unexpectedly, down it comes with a painful ſhock. When Milton, in his battle of the angels, deſcribes them as tearing up the mountains, and throwing them at one another; there are, in his deſcription, as Mr Addiſon has obſerved, no circumſtances but what are properly ſublime:

"From their foundations loos'ning to and
ſro,
They pluck'd the ſeated hills, with all their
load,
Rocks, waters, woods; and by the ſhaggy
tops
Uplifting, bore them in their hands."——

Whereas Claudian, in a fragment of the war of the giants, has contrived to render

der this idea of their throwing the mountains, which is in itſelf ſo grand, burleſque and ridiculous; by this ſingle circumſtance, of one of his giants with the mountain Ida upon his ſhoulders, and a river, which flowed from the mountain, running down along the giant's back, as he held it up in that poſture. There is a deſcription too in Virgil, which I think is cenſurable, though more ſlightly, in this reſpect. It is that of the burning mountain Ætna; a ſubject certainly very proper to be worked up by a poet into a ſublime deſcription;

"——Horrificis juxta tonat Ætna ruinis,
Interdumque atram prorumpit ad æthera nubem,
Turbine fumantem piceo, & candente favilla;
Attollitque globos flammarum, & ſidera lambit.
Interdum ſcopulos, avulſaque viſcera montis
Erigit eructans, liquefactaque ſaxa ſub auras
Cum gemitu glomerat, fundoque exæſtuat imo." Æn. iii. 571.

Here, after ſeveral magnificent images, the poet concludes with perſonifying the mountain under this figure, "eructans viſcera cum gemitu," belching up its bowels with a groan; which, by likening the mountain to a ſick, or drunk perſon, degrades the majeſty of the deſcription. It is to no purpoſe to tell us, that the poet here alludes to the fable of the giant Enceladus lying under mount Ætna; and that he ſuppoſes his motions and toſſings to have occaſioned the fiery eruptions. He intended the deſcription of a ſublime object; and the natural ideas, raiſed by a burning mountain, are infinitely more lofty, than the belchings of any giant, how huge ſoever. The debaſing effect of the idea which is here preſented, will appear in a ſtronger light, by ſeeing what figure it makes in a poem of Sir Richard Blackmore's, who, through a monſtrous perverſity of taſte, had choſen this for the capital circumſtance in his deſcription, and thereby (as Dr Arbuthnot humorouſly obſerves, in his Treatiſe on the Art of Sinking) had repreſented the mountain as in a fit of the cholic.

"Ætna, and all the burning mountains find
Their kindled ſtores with inbred ſtorms of wind
Blown up to rage, and roaring out complain,
As torn with inward gripes and torturing pain;
Labouring, they caſt their dreadful vomit round,
And with their melted bowels ſpread the ground."

Such inſtances ſhew how much the ſublime depends upon a juſt ſelection of circumſtances; and with how great care every circumſtance muſt be avoided, which, by bordering in the leaſt upon the mean, or even upon the gay or the trifling, alters the tone of the emotion."

We were much pleaſed to find the following *caveat* againſt the cold, unintereſting, parade of pompous language, which writers of depraved taſte, and ordinary genius, are apt to confound with ſublime writing:

"As for what is called the ſublime ſtyle," ſays our Author, "it is, for the moſt part, a very bad one; and has no relation whatever to the real ſublime. Perſons are apt to imagine, that magnificent words, accumulated epithets, and a certain ſwelling kind of expreſſion, by riſing above what is uſual or vulgar, contributes to, or even forms, the ſublime. Nothing can be more falſe. In all the inſtances of ſublime writing which I have given, nothing of this kind appears. "God ſaid, Let there be light, and there was light." This is ſtriking and ſublime. But put it into what is commonly called the ſublime ſtyle: "The ſovereign Arbiter of nature, by the potent energy of a ſingle word, commanded the light to exiſt;" and, as Boileau has well obſerved, the ſtyle indeed is raiſed, but the thought is fallen. In general, in all good writing, the ſublime lies in the thought, not in the words; and when the thought is truly noble, it will, for the moſt part, clothe itſelf in a native dignity of language. The ſublime, indeed, rejects mean, low, or trivial expreſſions; but it is equally an enemy to ſuch as are turgid. The main ſecret of being ſublime, is to ſay great things in few and plain words. It will be found to hold, without exception, that the moſt ſublime authors are the ſimpleſt in their ſtyle; and where-ever you find a writer, who affects a more than ordinary pomp and parade of words, and is always endeavouring to magnify his ſubject by epithets, there you may immediately ſuſpect, that, feeble in ſentiment, he is ſtudying to ſupport himſelf by mere expreſſion.

The ſame unfavourable judgement we muſt paſs on all that laboured apparatus with which ſome writers introduce a paſſage, or deſcription, which they intend ſhall be ſublime; calling on their readers to attend, invoking their muſe, or breaking forth into general, unmeaning exclamations,

mations, concerning the greatneſs, terribleneſs, or majeſty of the object which they are to deſcribe. Mr Addiſon, in his Campaign, has fallen into an error of this kind, when about to deſcribe the battle of Blenheim:

"But O! my Muſe! what numbers wilt thou find
To ſing the furious troops in battle join'd?
Methinks, I hear the drum's tumultuous ſound,
The victor's ſhouts, and dying groans, confound," &c.

Introductions of this kind are a forced attempt in a writer to ſpur up himſelf, and his reader, when he finds his imagination flagging in vigour. It is like taking artificial ſpirits, in order to ſupply the want of ſuch as are natural."

For the Lectures upon Language, we ſhall refer our readers to the Work itſelf; and proceed to give ſome ſpecimens of the Lectures on Style. The following obſervations on purity of Language deſerve attention.

"Purity and propriety of language are often uſed indiſcriminately for each other; and, indeed, they are very nearly allied. A diſtinction, however, obtains between them. Purity is the uſe of ſuch words, and ſuch conſtructions, as belong to the idiom of the language which we ſpeak, in oppoſition to words and phraſes that are imported from other languages, or that are obſolete, or new coined, or uſed without proper authority. Propriety is the ſelection of ſuch words in the language as the beſt and moſt eſtabliſhed uſage has appropriated to thoſe ideas which we intend to expreſs by them. It implies the correct and happy application of them, according to that uſage, in oppoſition to vulgariſms, or low expreſſions; and to words and phraſes, which would be leſs ſignificant of the ideas that we mean to convey. Style may be pure, that is, it may all be ſtrictly Engliſh, without Scotticiſms or Gallicisms, or ungrammatical irregular expreſſions of any kind, and may, nevertheleſs, be deficient in propriety. The words may be ill choſen; not adapted to the ſubject, nor fully expreſſive of the author's ſenſe. He has taken all his words and phraſes from the general maſs of Engliſh language; but he has made his ſelection among theſe words unhappily. Whereas ſtyle cannot be proper without being alſo pure; and where both purity and propriety meet, beſides making ſtyle perſpicuous, they alſo render it graceful. There is no ſtandard, either of purity or of propriety, but the practice of the beſt writers and ſpeakers in the country.

When I mentioned obſolete or new-coined words, as inconſiſtent with purity of ſtyle, it will be eaſily underſtood, that ſome exceptions are to be made. On certain occaſions they may have grace. Poetry admits of greater latitude than proſe, with reſpect to coining, or, at leaſt, new-compounding words; yet, even here, this liberty ſhould be uſed with a ſparing hand. In proſe ſuch innovations are more hazardous, and have a worſe effect. They are apt to give ſtyle an affected and conceited air; and ſhould never be ventured upon, except by ſuch whoſe eſtabliſhed reputation gives them ſome degree of dictatorial power over language.

The introduction of foreign and learned words, unleſs where neceſſity requires them, ſhould always be avoided. Barren languages may need ſuch aſſiſtances; but ours is not one of theſe. Dean Swift, one of our moſt correct writers, valued himſelf much on uſing no words but ſuch as were of native growth; and his language may, indeed, be conſidered as a ſtandard of the ſtricteſt purity and propriety in the choice of words. At preſent, we ſeem to be departing from this ſtandard. A multitude of Latin words have, of late, been poured in upon us. On ſome occaſions they give an appearance of elevation and dignity to ſtyle. But often alſo, they render it ſtiff and forced: and, in general, a plain native ſtyle, as it is more intelligible to all readers, ſo, by a proper management of words, it can be made equally ſtrong and expreſſive with this Latiniſed Engliſh."

Our language appears (to us) to be in much greater danger of being corrupted by the intruſion of French terms and idioms, than by the naturalization of Latin words. We are entirely of our author's opinion, that plain native Engliſh, in ſkilful hands, may be made as powerful a vehicle of thought as any foreign terms that can be employed; but we believe, at the ſame time, that foreign words owe their introduction into our language, not to the deſire of enriching it, and rendering it more expreſſive, but to the mere vanity and affectation of the importers.

The

The following obſervations on Preciſion will, no doubt, be acceptable to our readers:

"The exact import of preciſion may be drawn from the etymology of the word. It comes from *præcidere*, to cut off: it imports retrenching all ſuperfluities, and pruning the expreſſion ſo as to exhibit neither more nor leſs than an exact copy of his idea who uſes it. I obſerved before, that it is often difficult to ſeparate the qualities of ſtyle from the qualities of thought; and it is found ſo in this inſtance. For, in order to write with preciſion, though this be properly a quality of ſtyle, one muſt poſſeſs a very conſiderable degree of diſtinctneſs and accuracy in his manner of thinking.

The words which a man uſes to expreſs his ideas, may be faulty in three reſpects: They may either not expreſs that idea which the author intends, but ſome other which only reſembles, or is akin to it; or, they may expreſs that idea, but not quite fully and completely; or, they may expreſs it, together with ſomething more than he intends. Preciſion ſtands oppoſed to all theſe three faults; but chiefly to the laſt. In an author's writing with propriety, his being free of the two former faults ſeem implied. The words which he uſes are proper; that is, they expreſs that idea which he intends, and they expreſs it fully; but to be preciſe, ſignifies, that they expreſs that idea, and no more. There is nothing in his words which introduces any foreign idea, any ſuperfluous unſeaſonable acceſſory, ſo as to mix it confuſedly with the principal object, and thereby to render our conception of that object looſe and indiſtinct. This requires a writer to have, himſelf, a very clear apprehenſion of the object he means to preſent to us; to have laid faſt hold of it in his mind; and never to waver in any one view he takes of it: a perfection to which, indeed, few writers attain.

The uſe and importance of preciſion, may be deduced from the nature of the human mind. It never can view, clearly and diſtinctly, above one object at a time. If it muſt look at two or three together, eſpecially objects among which there is reſemblance or connection, it finds itſelf confuſed and embarraſſed. It cannot clearly perceive in what they agree, and in what they differ. Thus, were any object, ſuppoſe ſome animal, to be preſented to me, of whoſe ſtructure I wanted to form a diſtinct notion, I would deſire all its trappings to be taken off; I would require it to be brought before me by itſelf, and to ſtand alone, that there might be nothing to diſtract my attention. The ſame is the caſe with words. If, when you would inform me of your meaning, you alſo tell me more than what conveys it; if you join foreign circumſtances to the principal object; if, by unneceſſarily varying the expreſſion, you ſhift the point of view, and make me ſee ſometimes the object itſelf, and ſometimes another thing that is connected with it; you thereby oblige me to look on ſeveral objects at once, and I loſe ſight of the principal. You lead the animal you are ſhowing me, with ſo many trappings and collars, and bring ſo many of the ſame ſpecies before me, ſomewhat reſembling, and yet ſomewhat differing, that I ſee none of them clearly.

This forms what is called a looſe ſtyle, and is the proper oppoſite to preciſion. It generally ariſes from uſing a ſuperfluity of words. Feeble writers employ a multitude of words to make themſelves underſtood, as they think, more diſtinctly; and they only confound the reader. They are ſenſible of not having caught the preciſe expreſſion to convey what they would ſignify; they do not, indeed, conceive their own meaning very preciſely themſelves; and therefore help it out, as they can, by this and the other word, which may, as they ſuppoſe, ſupply the defect, and bring you ſomewhat nearer to their idea: they are always going about it, and about it, but never juſt hit the thing. The image, as they ſet it before you, is always ſeen double; and no double image is diſtinct. When an author tells me of his hero's *courage* in the day of battle, the expreſſion is preciſe, and I underſtand it fully. But if, from the deſire of multiplying words, he will needs praiſe his *courage* and *fortitude*; at the moment he joins theſe words together, my idea begins to waver. He means to expreſs one quality more ſtrongly; but he is, in truth, expreſſing two. *Courage* reſiſts danger; *fortitude* ſupports pain. The occaſion of exerting each of theſe qualities is different; and being led to think of both together, when only one of them ſhould be in my view, my view is rendered unſteady, and my conception of the object indiſtinct." [*To be continued.*]

Beattie's

Beattie's Diſſertations, continued. [p. 376.]

HAving conſidered the doctrine of Aſſociations, Dr Beattie proceeds to treat of Genius and Taſte, on which he offers many ſenſible and pertinent obſervations. We preſent our readers with the following remarks on one of the moſt curious ſubjects of human ſpeculation,—the cauſes of the diverſity of Genius among mankind.

"I will not undertake (ſays he) to trace out the efficient cauſes of thoſe varieties of genius which are obſervable among mankind. Genius being the talent of uſeful invention, and invention the work of imagination, it may ſeem to follow, that whatever diverſifies imagination, muſt give variety to genius. If the fancy have acquired, by nature or by habit, a tendency to paſs from cauſes to effects, and from effects to cauſes, it may be preſumed, that the genius, aided by accurate obſervation, will be philoſophical. If there be a propenſity to trace out reſemblances, and to bring thoſe ideas together which are *like* one another, the genius may poſſibly exert itſelf in ſome imitative art, as painting or poetry; eſpecially if there be ſuperadded a taſte for the beauties of nature, with great ſenſibility of temper, and a contemplative mind: but, in perſons leſs romantic, and much engaged in the buſineſs of ſociety, or who have not in early life been accuſtomed to ſurvey the grand phenomena of creation, if the ſame aſſociating principle of reſemblance predominate, it may perhaps give riſe to Wit; which conſiſts, for the moſt part, in the unexpected diſcovery of ſimilitude between things apparently unlike. A tenacious memory, with a diſpoſition to aſſociate thoſe ideas that are related in time and place, ſeems likely to produce a genius for hiſtorical narrative.

All this may be ſaid, and is probable enough; but not ſufficient to ſolve the difficulty. For ſtill it may be aſked, Whence comes it, that one imagination ſhould be more, and another leſs, ſubject to the influence of any one aſſociating principle? Why ſhould Reſemblance attract the chief notice of one mind; contiguity of place and time, that of another; and the relation of cauſe and effect, that of a third? Is this the conſequence of habits contracted in the beginning of life? Then why have not all children the ſame turn of genius, who have had the ſame education?—Or is it merely conſtitutional?

In fact, I believe it is owing partly to conſtitution, and partly to habit: but that theſe two cauſes are ſo blended in forming and varying human genius, that one can hardly ſay, in any particular caſe, how far the one, or the other, may have been predominant. In the moſt diſcouraging circumſtances, we have ſeen genius unexpectedly ariſe; and a peculiar turn of temper, and of capacity prevail, in oppoſition to all the power both of precept and of example.

The paſſions, no doubt, have ſome influence in forming the genius. You cannot expect to find the ſame talents in a chearful and a melancholy man; in an arrogant and an humble ſpirit; in one who loves retirement, and in one who is fond of the buſtle and glitter of public life. Wit and humour, when united, as in Swift, with miſanthropy, pride, and indignation, will vent itſelf in ſuch virulent ridicule, as makes men deſpiſe and hate one another: but, if accompanied with mildneſs and benevolence, may give riſe to that good natured jocularity, which we admire in Addiſon, and which ſweetens the temper, while it enlivens the fancy.

Habits contracted in our younger years may alſo give a bias to the inventive powers. When children are much in the company of ſeamen, of ſoldiers, of mechanics, we ſee them acquire habits of attending, with more than ordinary pleaſure, to the converſation of ſuch people. Hence they come to underſtand ſomething of naval affairs, military tranſactions, mechanical curioſities; to be intereſted in them, and take a liking to them: and this liking, if ſtrong, and accompanied with good parts, will no doubt go a great way in forming a peculiarity of genius. Thoſe who reliſh harmony of language, and read the works of poets, eſpecially of good poets, very early in life, acquire in time a poetical taſte, which, if other circumſtances be favourable, will produce ſomething like a genius for poetry.

Among contemporary poets, we may ſometimes obſerve a ſimilarity of genius; which is probably occaſioned by their imitating one another. When Donne and Cowley had introduced, about the middle of the laſt century, a taſte for irregular meaſures of verſe, and for interlarding every ſpecies of poem with childiſh witticiſm,

witticiſm, Sprat, and Otway, and many others, fell into the faſhion; and one would almoſt think that the ſame ſpirit had animated them all.

But it ſeems to me, that they are minds of an inferior order which are thus formed, or enſlaved, by early habits; true, original, and diſtinguiſhing genius being the gift of nature, though improvable by good education, and liable to be in ſome degree perverted by bad. At the time when Cowley had infected the whole nation with witticiſm, Milton aroſe; and gave his country a ſpecimen of the trueſt and moſt ſublime poetry: in framing which he was directed, partly by his exquiſite taſte in ancient learning, but chiefly by his own incomparable genius.

Yet Milton himſelf, though not enſlaved, was ſwayed a little by the prejudices of his age, and the habits of his early youth. And I obſerve, that the faſhion of the time is by all critics admitted as an apology for an author's more trivial faults: whence we may infer, that, in the general opinion of mankind, the moſt elevated minds cannot wholly reſiſt the force of example, and that the bent of genius is partly determined by outward circumſtances. The very learned writer of an Inquiry into the life and writings of Homer has proved, or at leaſt made it highly probable, that the great father of poetry himſelf was in ſome degree indebted, for the tranſcendency of his genius, to the manners of his age, and to the political and military eſtabliſhments wherewith it was his fortune to be acquainted.

When I ſaid, that thoſe are geniuſes of an inferior order which are formed or enſlaved by early habits, I did not mean to inſinuate, that no great genius ever became an imitator. Virgil imitates many poets, and particularly Homer, from whom he has borrowed the plan, and many of the ſentiments, images, and phraſes, of the Eneid: but Virgil's ſtyle, and manner, and the numbers of his verſe, are altogether his own; and are characteriſed by a peculiar dignity, correctneſs, and delicacy, not to be met with in Homer, nor indeed in any other poet. Taſſo imitates Homer in his plan, and Virgil in his ſtyle. Pope imitates Boileau and Dryden: but his own genius is apparent in every part of his works; he has more fire and fancy than the French author; and he is more ſublime, and more uniformly harmonious, than his Engliſh maſter.—In fact, all good poets imitate one another more or leſs: and I am not ſure, whether Homer himſelf has not in ſome things condeſcended to imitate Heſiod*. But in the writings of a great genius, even when he imitates, nay when he is only a tranſlator, there is always ſomething peculiar and extraordinary."

The ſubject of our author's next diſſertation is *Dreaming*; of which, we are convinced, no philoſophical or ſatisfactory account can be given. Dr Beattie's object is not to aſcertain the *efficient* but the *final* cauſes of this very ſingular phenomenon. But the reader will probably be diſpoſed to ſmile, when he ſees a grave philoſopher ſeriouſly labouring to ſhow, that dreams may be of uſe in the

* Homer is generally ſuppoſed to have been before Heſiod. I incline to a different opinion, but am not poſitive in it. For in the latter I think I find not only the poetical art, but even the Greek tongue, leſs cultivated, than in the former. And if Heſiod had known Homer, I preſume he would have mentioned him, and been ſomewhat more particular in what he ſays of the Trojan war. His plan would not have hindered it; whereas Homer's could hardly admit the mention of Heſiod. The Aſcrean bard laments his having had the misfortune to live in the fifth age of the world; wiſhing, that he had died in an earlier, or been reſerved to a later period: now this fifth age, according to his own account, immediately followed thoſe heroic times in which happened the war of Thebes and of Troy: ſo that Homer, if he had flouriſhed (as Cicero and Dr Clarke conjecture he did) many ages before Heſiod, muſt have been born before the Trojan war; which is altogether incredible. Dr Clarke's ingenious argument, drawn from the proſody of the Greek word ἄναξ; the firſt ſyllable of which, he obſerves, that Homer uniformly pronounces long, while Heſiod and the latter poets have it ſometimes long, and ſometimes ſhort:—this argument, I ſay, does not ſeem very material; ſuch changes of pronunciation being common in all languages. Herodotus and Varro make theſe venerable bards contemporaries. There ſeems indeed to have been no great interval of time between them. And it is evident, from the general colour of their ſtyle, either that the one imitates the other, or that both have imitated ſome poet more ancient than either. See Heſiod. Opera et Dies, verſ. 172.—Cicero de Senectute, cap. 15.—Clarke, Annot. ad Hom. Iliad. Lib. 2. verſ. 43.

way

way of phyſical admonition; and that perſons who attend to them with this view might make important diſcoveries with regard to their health; that they may be ſerviceable as the means of moral improvement; and that by attending to them we may diſcern our predominant paſſions, and receive good hints for the regulation of them; that they may have been intended by Providence to ſerve as an amuſement to the mental powers; and that dreaming is not univerſal, becauſe all conſtitutions do not probably require ſuch an intellectual amuſement.

We agree with Dr Beattie, that nature does nothing in vain; but we are far from thinking, that man is, in every caſe, able to diſcover her intentions. Final cauſes, perhaps, ought never to be the ſubjects of human ſpeculation, but when they are plain and obvious. To ſubſtitute vain conjectures inſtead of the deſigns of Providence, on ſubjects where theſe deſigns are beyond our reach, ſerves only to furniſh matter for the ſneers of the licentious, and the cavils of the ſceptical.

The ſubject of the third diſſertation, the moſt conſiderable in the book, is the *Theory of Language*; in the firſt part of which the Doctor treats of the origin and general nature of ſpeech; and in the ſecond of univerſal grammar. He begins with ſome judicious remarks on the natural and artificial ſigns of thought; then conſiders the organs of ſpeech; articulation; the formation and claſſes of the vowel and conſonant ſounds; the imperfections of the alphabet, and irregularity of ſpelling. After diſcuſſing theſe ſubjects at great length, he makes ſome remarks on emphaſis. In this part of the diſſertation we find a very ingenious theory of Engliſh verſification, which we ſhall lay before our readers in the author's own words:

"On what does the meaſure of Engliſh verſe depend?—Some have ſaid, on the number of ſyllables. But that is a miſtake.—The three following lines are of the ſame Iambic ſpecies; and yet, the firſt conſiſts of ten, the ſecond of nine, and the third of eight ſyllables:

And many a youth, and many a maid
Were dancing in the neighbouring ſhade,
In holiday attire array'd.

Of the four following lines the firſt and third have eight ſyllables, and the ſecond and fourth have nine; yet the meaſure is the ſame throughout:

Yet do not my folly reprove;
She was fair, and my paſſion begun;
She ſmil'd, and I could not but love;
She is faithleſs, and I am undone.

The four that follow might all ſtand in the ſame verſe of the ſame ſong, and be ſung to the ſame tune, though in the firſt there are eleven ſyllables, in the ſecond twelve, thirteen in the third, and fourteen in the laſt.

And when I am gone, may the better ſort ſay,
He had ſenſe, he was modeſt, and harmleſly gay,
And a kind, unaffected and good honeſt fellow,
In the morning when ſober, in the evening when mellow.

Our heroic verſe, too, may conſiſt of ten ſyllables, (which is the ſimpleſt and moſt common form of it) or of eleven, or of twelve: as,

Arms and the man I ſing, who forc'd by fate.—
Bellowing along the plains the monſter ran.—
Many a wide lawn, and many a waving grove.—

The following has been given, as a heroic line of fourteen ſyllables,

And many an humorous, many an amorous lay.

And, admitting a ſupernumerary ſyllable, the ſecond line of this couplet might be tolerated, though it has fifteen.

The hapleſs poet pen'd, alas! for pity,
Full many an amorous, many a querulous ditty.

It has indeed been thought by ſome critics, that in our heroic verſe, when the ſyllables exceed ten in number, there muſt be redundant vowels, which in reading are ſuppreſſed or cut off, and inſtead of which, in printed books, the apoſtrophe is often inſerted. But, whatever be the caſe in printing, and writing, this is contrary to the practice of all good readers; who pronounce every ſyllable diſtinctly, and by ſo doing gratify our ear much more than if they had made the ſuppoſed eliſions. For, how ridiculous would it be, if one were to read the laſt line thus!

Full man' an am'rous, man' a quer'lous ditty.

This might indeed be called meaſure, but it could not be called Engliſh.

Some have imagined, that the rhythm of our verſe depends, like that of the Greek and Latin, not upon the number, but upon the *quantity*, of ſyllables. And it is true, that an Engliſh heroic line may be made up of a ſhort and long ſyllable five times repeated; in which caſe

we may ſay, without any impropriety, that it is a pure Iambic of five feet: as,

Dĕſpaīr, rĕvēnge, rĕmōrſe, tŏrmēnt thĕ fōūl.

But it is no leſs true, that an Engliſh heroic line *may* be compoſed, wherein there ſhall not be one long ſyllable, except the laſt: as,

The buſy bodies flutter tattle ſtill.

Whatever may be ſaid of this line in other reſpects, it will at leaſt be allowed to be of the Engliſh heroic ſpecies: and yet, if we were to pronounce the ſecond, fourth, ſixth, and eighth ſyllables as if they were long, the articulation would be ridiculous:

The buzz-y bod-ies flutt-er tatt-le ſtill.

I grant, that thoſe heroic lines which abound in ſyllables that are at once emphatical and ſhort, are not ſo proper for expreſſing ſentiments or images of dignity: yet ſtill they are of the heroic ſpecies; and no critic will ſay, that they are inconſiſtent with rule, or not juſtifiable by authority.

On what then does the meaſure of Engliſh verſe depend? Not on the *number* of the ſyllables, as we have ſeen: nor on their *quantity*; ſince an Engliſh heroic line may conſiſt of five ſhort and five long ſyllables, or of nine ſhort and one long ſyllable.—In fact, this matter is regulated by the *emphaſis*. In our verſe, there muſt be in every foot one emphatic ſyllable whether long or ſhort. And the alternate ſucceſſion of emphatic and non-emphatic ſyllables is as eſſential to Engliſh numbers, as that of long and ſhort is to the Latin and Greek.—Thus in that line,

The buſy bodies flatter tattle ſtill,

though there is not one long ſyllable till you come to the end, there are five emphatic ſyllables, each of them preceded by a ſyllable of no emphaſis. And in the other line,

Deſpair, remorſe, revenge, torment the ſoul,

there are alſo five emphatic ſyllables, each preceded by a non-emphatic ſyllable.

In what reſpect, then, do theſe two lines (which are allowed to be of the ſame ſpecies) reſemble each other, and in what reſpect do they differ? They differ in this reſpect, that one is made up of ſhort and long ſyllables alternately diſpoſed, while the other has in it only one long ſyllable: they agree in this, that both the one and the other is compoſed of non-emphatic and emphatic ſyllables placed alternately. It follows, that, though long and ſhort, or ſhort and long, ſyllables *may ſometimes* form the rhythm of Engliſh verſe, yet that which *invariably* and *eſſentially* forms it, is the interchange of emphatic and non-emphatic ſyllables.

In lines that are intended to imitate the ſenſe by the articulation, or to be remarkably conciſe and ſignificant, an exuberance of emphatic ſyllables may ſometimes be found. But ſuch lines, whatever merit they may have in reſpect of energy, are not well-tuned; and perhaps could hardly be known to be verſe, if we did not find them among other verſes. The imperfection of their harmony, however, we overlook, if they have any other beauty to counterbalance it. Such is this of Milton:

Rocks, caves, lakes, fens, bogs, dens, and ſhades of death.

And ſuch is that, in a late epilogue, which I have heard Mrs Abingdon pronounce very humorouſly:

Some great fat wife of ſome great fat ſhop-keeper.

Our language abounds in words of one ſyllable, many of which, being of ambiguous quantity, have no other emphaſis, but the rhetorical, which is fixed upon them by the ſenſe. In lines of monoſyllables, therefore, that are well-tuned, thoſe words, which by the rule of the verſe would have the ſyllabic emphaſis, have alſo the rhetorical emphaſis from the importance of their ſignification. If we were to miſtake the following line for proſe,—

The ſun was ſet, and all the plains were ſtill,

yet, if we read it with underſtanding, the rhetorical emphaſis, coinciding with the ſyllabic, and having indeed the ſame effect, would prove it to be poetical, and of the heroic ſpecies."

This chapter is concluded with an ingenious account of the different kinds of Engliſh poetical meaſure, which we muſt deny ourſelves the pleaſure of inſerting. M.

Illuſtrations of Natural Hiſtory, wherein are exhibited upwards of two hundred figures of exotic inſects, according to their different genera; very few of which have hitherto been exhibited by any author; being engraved and coloured from nature, with the greateſt accuracy, and under the author's own inſpection, on fifty copper-plates. With a particular deſcription of

each

each inſect. Interſperſed with remarks and reflections on the nature and properties of many of them. By D. Drury. Vol. 3. *4to. 2 l. 12 s. 6 d. plain. Coloured 5 l. 5 s.* White.

WE are very glad to ſee this elegant work at length completed. It is a moſt pleaſing production, and does credit both to the author and to the country which has produced it.

The firſt volume was publiſhed in the year 1770 [vol. 32. p.495.]; and the ſecond in the year 1773.

The objects exhibited in the preſent publication, are no leſs rare or beautiful in their kinds, nor of leſs curioſity, than thoſe of which the two preceding volumes were compoſed: the drawings appear to be very accurate, and the colours ſeem to vie with Nature's own painting. The deſcriptions, as in the former volumes, are given in Engliſh and in French: ſo likewiſe is the author's copious and entertaining preface; and alſo a ſeries of remarks on the inſects contained in his work. The latter were chiefly communicated by the ingenious Mr Smeathman,—whoſe curious reſearches, and extenſive reading in the book of Nature, are well known to the public. [vol. 43. p. 617. 681.]

In his preface to the preſent volume, Mr Drury makes a grateful acknowledgement to the public for the favourable reception which the two preceding parts of his work have met with; and he likewiſe apologiſes, with great propriety, for the length of time which has elapſed between the publication of the different volumes. Among other circumſtances that have contributed to this delay, he mentions the unfair procedure of ſome brother *virtuoſi*, who had free acceſs to his cabinet; in conſequence of which he has experienced ſome very diſagreeable *anticipations*. Such ungrateful treatment is undoubtedly intitled to expreſſions of reſentment, much harſher than the gentle terms in which it is intimated by this modeſt writer.

In reciting the difficulties, and almoſt unſurmountable impediments which the curious traveller has to encounter, in collecting from the ſtores of nature in foreign parts, our author has mentioned many circumſtances that will equally ſurpriſe and amuſe the *untravelled* reader; from theſe we ſhall ſelect the following paſſages:

"In regard to the manners and œconomy of the inſects now publiſhed, I have been able to get little information. There are very few even of thoſe who collect abroad, who will give themſelves the trouble of making obſervations; and ſuch as do not want inclination or ability, and even travel expreſsly for the purpoſe, find great, and to us almoſt inconceivable impediments.

Mr Smeathman, who has been many years in Africa and the Weſt Indies, has furniſhed me with a few remarks on this ſubject, together with obſervations on ſome particular inſects, publiſhed in the preceding volumes, as well as this. Theſe obſervations, I am of opinion, will afford information and entertainment to my readers, and at the ſame time throw ſome light on the nature, qualities, or diſpoſitions of many kinds of inſects, of which, hitherto, we know nothing more than the external figure. He informs me, that in hot climates, eſpecially ſuch as are not well ſettled, the difficulties attending every kind of ſtudy, and every ſpecies of collecting, are infinitely greater than thoſe who have not viſited them can poſſibly ſuppoſe. In thoſe countries, either from the ſcarcity and high price of the materials, or the dearneſs of labour, the traders or ſettlers are obliged to calculate for little more than neceſſary houſe-room, with ſuch conveniencies only as are abſolutely neceſſary for their different occupations and purſuits; in which they are, from theſe circumſtances, frequently much cramped and embarraſſed. If this is the caſe with thoſe who have all the beſt means in their power of providing for themſelves, how muſt it be with tranſient perſons and ſpeculative travellers, who are ſeldom profitable viſitors?

As to the breeding of inſects, and obſerving their changes and diſpoſitions with care and circumſpection, it ſeems almoſt impoſſible in the nature of things to be practiſed, except, comparatively ſpeaking, with a very few. The various ſpecies of ants, cockroaches, and other voracious vermin, are ſo numerous as to be one of the greateſt plagues the collector has to encounter; inſomuch that it is barely poſſible to preſerve dried inſects, and other animals, with the utmoſt care and the cloſeſt boxes, much leſs living ones, which require light and air; for as ſoon as caterpillars are brought out of the woods, and placed within doors, with an intention of breeding them, they

they ſeem to be, as in fact they are, out of the order of nature, and quickly fall victims to the rapacity of thoſe agents whoſe province it is to remove animal or vegetable bodies, which, having ariſen to maturity, or loſt the principles of life, are on their progreſs towards a ſlow diſſolution, a ſtate of uſeleſs inanimation, or noxious putreſcence. Indeed, among theſe, none are more uſeful in this point of view than the ants. Theſe inſects, whether conſidered as the efficient ſervants of Nature, keeping clean and wholeſome the face of the creation, or, as the miniſters of almighty power, preſerving a due equality between animals and vegetables, perform, without exemption or reſerve, his high behеſts. Like the angel of heaven, they walk ſteadily forward in the line ordained them, and ſpare neither magnitude nor beauty, neither the living nor the dead, but ſweep away all kinds of animal ſubſtances with undeviating rigour and rapacious perſeverance.

Sometimes they proceed, like thoſe I have mentioned in the preface to my firſt volume, driving all the inhabitants out of a town in a few hours; and, in other inſtances, like a ſlow but irreſiſtible fire, they gradually, in two or three years, take poſſeſſion of the land, and carry death and deſtruction to every kind of animals; ſo that not only pigeons and fowls, lambs and kids, but even calves and foals, which have been brought forth in the night, have been deſtroyed before the riſing of the ſun; and the inhabitants themſelves, though they placed the poſts of their beds in troughs of water, were driven out of them by theſe inevitable diſturbers.

It is not to be ſuppoſed, that hot countries are at all times infeſted to this degree. They never are, however, without an aſtoniſhing number of theſe inſects, which no art, labour, or expence, can totally exclude from the dwellings of the inhabitants. The number of different ſpecies is not yet known, and is ſo great, added to the minuteneſs of moſt of them, that it probably never will be diſcovered with any degree of certainty. There are not leſs than fifteen or twenty ſpecies, which find their way into the houſes. Theſe are not only to be diſtinguiſhed by their ſize, figure, and colour, but by their different properties. Some are near an inch long, from which, to that of being ſcarce viſible to the naked eye, are various ſizes. Some are long and ſlender, others ſhort and thick; ſome are elegantly ſhaped, and highly poliſhed; while others are, according to vulgar apprehenſions, deformed, armed with ſpines, and covered with briſtly, or coarſe and rough ſkins. Some ſpecies alſo are as black as jet; others of the deepeſt brown, or of different ſhades, till they approach to yellow; and not a few are variegated, having ſome of the priſmatic colours in full glow. They vary as much in their nature and diſpoſitions; ſome deſtroy freſh collected plants; and in ſpite of weights laid upon the books in which they are placed to dry, get in, cut the leaves and flowers in pieces, and carry them away. Others, of different ſpecies, attack all ſorts of victuals, particularly ſweet things, as ſugar and fruits.

The different manners of this large and ſagacious tribe of inſects, are, according to my friend's account, exceedingly various and amuſing, but much too long for this occaſion; neither would it be proper for me to enter farther into an account of them, as that gentleman purpoſes to treat minutely on their various hiſtories in his voyages and travels; a book which, he informs me, is in ſome forwardneſs, and will doubtleſs afford great entertainment and information to the curious part of mankind.

The cockroaches are another race of peſtiferous beings, equally noiſome and miſchievous to natives or ſtrangers, but particularly to collectors. Theſe naſty and voracious inſects fly out in the evenings, and commit monſtrous depredations; they plunder and erode all kinds of victuals, dreſt and undreſt, and damage all ſorts of cloathing, eſpecially thoſe which are touched with powder, pomatum, and ſimilar ſubſtances; every thing made of leather, books*, paper, and various other articles, which, if they do not deſtroy, at leaſt they ſoil, as they frequently depoſit a drop of their excrement where they ſettle, and ſome way or other, by that means, damage what they cannot devour.

They often fly into perſon's faces or boſoms, and their legs being armed with ſharp ſpines, the pricking excites a ſud-

* Even ſo hard a ſubſtance as tortoiſe-ſhell poliſhed, of which we have ſeen an inſtance, viz. a ſnuff-box eaten almoſt through by the cockroach.

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den horror, not eaſily deſcribed. In old houſes they ſwarm by myriads, making every part filthy beyond deſcription where-ever they harbour, which in the day-time is in dark corners, behind all ſorts of clothes, in trunks, boxes, and in ſhort every place where they can lie concealed. In old timber and deal houſes, when the family is retired at night to ſleep, this inſect, among other diſagreeable properties, has the power of making a noiſe which very much reſembles a pretty ſmart knocking with the knuckle upon the wainſcotting. The *Blatta gigantea* of Linnæus in the Weſt Indies, are therefore frequently known by the name of drummers. Three or four of theſe noiſy creatures will ſometimes be impelled to anſwer one another, and cauſe ſuch a drumming noiſe, that none but thoſe who are very good ſleepers can reſt for them: what is moſt diſagreeable, thoſe who have not gauze curtains are ſometimes attacked by them in their ſleep. The ſick and dying have their extremities attacked, and the ends of the toes and fingers of the dead are frequently ſtripped of both ſkin and fleſh.

The *termites* are another genus of inſects which ſome time or other injure the traveller, and at leaſt add to the number of his cares. Theſe wonderful creatures were little known till Mr Smeathman developed their extraordinary hiſtory. They were generally ſuppoſed to be a ſpecies of ant, and in conſequence ſo frequently confounded with the natural hiſtory of that great genus of inſects, that it has thrown much obſcurity into both.

The ravages of theſe inſects are ſo inſidious, that travellers frequently ſuffer irreparable damage before they are aware of them. When they are previouſly informed, the depredations of thoſe inſects may be greatly prevented; but conſtant care and caution are required; which is no ſmall addition to the number of cares that a collector muſt always have upon his mind. I ſhall not pretend to go any farther into the hiſtory of this genus of inſects, as I muſt neceſſarily borrow it from my ingenious friend's very entertaining account of them, publiſhed in the 71ſt volume, part 1. of the Philoſophical Tranſactions, to which I refer my reader." [vol. 43. p. 617.]

To theſe obſtacles Mr Smeathman adds others, ſome of which we can have little idea of in theſe climates. The Norway rats are ſo numerous and ſo bold, that they will come and feed by the ſide of the table at ſupper, and during the ſtill hours of night, ſearch every corner for plunder, making a continual uproar, and often, in a kind of furor, carry away ſmall utenſils, and other articles, which they can turn to no advantage either for food or ſhelter. They are very miſchievous to the naturaliſt's collection of plants and ſeeds, tearing them, and the books in which they are kept, in pieces, as it were in wantonneſs, and carrying away ſuch as are edible, in which they are often aſſiſted by the land-crabs. Theſe amphibious inſects frequently make holes for themſelves, or uſe thoſe made by the rats under ground, and enter through the floors of the Negroes cottages.

In the rainy ſeaſons, many ſmall animals are apt to take ſhelter in the thatch; among others, various ſpecies of ſnakes, who moſt probably get there in purſuit of the rats. Mr Smeathman, when on the African ſhore, obſerved, that the former were very harmleſs; and, as he found the latter very miſchievous and deſtructive, he would not ſuffer the ſnakes to be killed or hunted out. The patient natives there, it ſeems, as well as the rational travellers, are not without conſolation amidſt this heterogeneous crowd of inmates. They ſee with pleaſure the ſpiders always on the watch for the waſps and cockroaches, the laſt of which are intolerable. The lizards, again, attack all ſorts of inſects, the large tarantula, as it is called, not excepted. The lizards not unfrequently fall a prey to the fowls, and the rats to the ſnakes. Hence lizards, rats, ſnakes, and land-crabs, occaſionally ſerve as delicious repaſts to the improvident inhabitants, who "thrive under evil."

"Sometimes, indeed, the land-crab becomes, as in the Weſt Indies, a part of the ſtock of the provident and luxurious inhabitants, who incloſe a ſmall piece of ground in the manner of a yard, and feed them with fruit, herbs, Indian corn, and other grain, on which they fatten exceedingly, and, ſtewed in any manner, are moſt delicious eating.

Thus a ſpeculative man can find few opportunities of ſecuring his collections, or of making obſervations, while ſurrounded by the hoſpitable chief, the trader, the planters, and their families, who ſcarce finding room enough in their houſes for themſelves, think all time loſt that is not ſpent in lucrative buſineſs, active

active pleasures, or social festivity. If to this we add frequent sickness, the want of boats or cattle for conveyance, in cases where moving without is impracticable; the want of information, of guides, of assistance, the means of transporting things, of candle-lights, or even a table to write on, it will not be surprising we have so little knowledge of the uncultivated tropical regions. Even travellers who go expressly to make observations, have other great difficulties to encounter. They are sometimes obliged to pass much of their time in providing the mere necessaries of life, and some in securing themselves from danger.

As this is the case, we have not much reason to wonder that our accounts of some foreign countries, and their natural productions, are so short and imperfect. We must content ourselves with slight sketches, which, repeated and corroborated by various travellers, may at last amount to one great descriptive and useful work; of which those contained in this preface are offered only as scattered seeds."

We shall here take leave of this very ingenious artist, naturalist, and philosopher; thanking him for the pleasure we have enjoyed in the contemplation of his elegant engravings; as well as in the perusal of his well-written prefatory discourses. M.

Account of the Heights of different Places.

THE following Heights have been ascertained chiefly by experiments with the barometer. The elevation is understood to be above the level of the sea, unless where it is particularly mentioned otherwise.

In the SOUTH *of* SCOTLAND.	*Feet.*
Piazza of Holyroodhouse Palace,	135
Pavement at the Netherbow,	210
Ditto at the Cross of Edinburgh,	290
The High-church steeple from its base (measured with a cord),	155
The top of the Caltonhill,	350
The top of Arthur's Seat,	756
Ditto, from its lowest base on the west side,	370
[This base is about an English mile from the high-water mark.]	
Buck's-stone on Braidshill,	490
House of Woodhouslee,	720
Loganhouse-hill, the highest of the Pentland-hills,	1700
The top of Errickstone Brae, the greatest height on the road betwixt Edinburgh and Carlisle,	1118
Hartfield-hill, near Moffat, the highest in the south of Scotland,	2182
Mr Stirling's house in the town of Leadhills, being the highest,	1564
[Leadhills is the highest inhabited ground in Scotland, or perhaps in Britain.]	
Tintock in Lanerkshire, taken by Col. Roy (by the barometer),	1644
Stonbyres-hill, in ditto,	960
Ditto above the level of Clyde, from which it rises in a straight and gradual ascent,	654
Level of the Clyde at Lanerk bridge, 30 miles from the sea, or high-water mark at the new bridge of Glasgow,	362
Level of the Tweed, at Kelso bridge, 9 miles from the sea,	90
In the HIGHLANDS.	
The paps of Jura, the two highest hills in the Hebrides, rising immediately from the sea, the south pap the highest,	2476
The north pap,	2420
Ben Moir, in Breadalbane, from the house of Auchlyne, in the valley below,	2064
Bidinambran, in Glenco, Argyleshire,	3150
Ballinclow, above Blair in Athol,	2998
Top of Schehallien, in Perthshire,	2832
Ditto from its base,	2090
Benlaws, above Loch Tay,	3588
Ben Nevis, in Lochaber,	4373
[This is reckoned the highest hill in Scotland, though there is probably still higher ground in the most inland parts of the Highlands. It is 193 feet lower than Skiddaw.]	
Ben Lomond, above the level of Lochlomond,	3240
Lochlomond, above sea level, from which it is distant six miles,	22
Depth of Lochlomond at the foot of the mountain, 120 fathom,	720
If this calculation, which was made by Colonel Charles Ross, is just, the height of this mountain, from its base, which is immersed in water 120 fathoms, to its summit, is in all	3960
[The ascent is almost direct, and remarkably steep.]	
In ENGLAND.	
Top of Cheviot hill, in Cumberland,	2682
Ditto from the low ground near it, at Woolerhaugh-head,	2335
Mount Skiddaw, in Cumberland, the highest hill in England,	4466
Ditto from the plain, measured geometrically by Mr Smeaton, the famous engineer,	3375

Pen-

	Feet
Penmaenmaur in Wales,	1400
Snowdon, in ditto,	3506
Top of the ſpire of St Paul's church in London, from the Thames,	464

Of different Places in EUROPE.

Mons Blogſberg, the higheſt mountain in the north of Germany, taken by Baron Haller,	4000
Mont Blanc, the higheſt of the Alps, above the Mediterranean, (geometrically meaſured),	15,662
[This is the higheſt ground in Europe, Aſia, or Africa, being 266 feet higher than Teneriffe.]	
Mount Veſuvius, near Naples, above the Mediterranean, (by the barometer),	3,938
Mount Ætna, in Sicily, above ditto, (ditto),	10,954
[By the neareſt computation, the circumference of the baſe of this mountain is 90 miles. And from Catania, where the aſcent firſt begins, to the ſummit, it is 30 miles.]	
Soracte in Tuſcany, above the Mediterranean,	2271
Hecla in Iceland,	4903
The Flaghouſe of Gibraltar, from the ſea below,	1273
The top of the Croſs of St Peter's Church at Rome, above the Tiber,	502

In AMERICA.

Chimborazo, the higheſt peak of the Andes in South America, above the South Sea, (geometrically meaſured),	20460
[This mountain is ſuppoſed to be the higheſt land in the known world Tho' under the line, it is perpetually covered with ſnow 4000 feet round the top]	
The city of Quito, in South America,	9370
[This town is reckoned the higheſt inhabited land in the known world]	

In AFRICA *and its* ISLES.

Peak of Teneriffe, one of the Canaries, meaſured by Dr Heberden, geometrically,	15,396
[By this calculation, the peak is near 5000 feet lower than Chimborazo; but the former is within 20 miles of the ſea, while the latter is many hundred miles from it.]	
Pico, in the iſland of Madeira,	5142
Mount Atlas, in Barbary, never exactly meaſured, but ſuppoſed	2190

A CHARM FOR ENNUI.

A Matrimonial Ballad.

By WILLIAM HAYLEY, *Eſq;*

YE couples who meet under Love's ſmiling ſtar,
Too gentle to ſkirmiſh, too ſoft e'er to jar,
Tho' covered with roſes from joy's richeſt tree,
Near the couch of Delight lurks the dæmon *Ennui.*

Let the Muſe's gay lyre, like Ithuriel's bright ſpear, [proaching your ear;
Keep this fiend, ye ſweet brides, from ap-
Since you know the ſquat toad's infernal *eſprit*,
Never liſten, like Eve, to the devil *Ennui.*

Let no gloom of your hall, no ſhade of your bower, [power;
Make you think you behold this malevolent
Like a child in the dark, what you fear you will ſee;
Take courage, away flies the phantom *Ennui.*

O truſt me, the powers both of perſon and mind [find;
To defeat this fly foe full ſufficient you'll
Should your eyes fail to kill him, with keen repartee
You can ſink the flat boat of th' invader *Ennui.*

If a cool *non-chalance* o'er your *perſo* ſhould ſpread,
For vapours will riſe e'en on Jupiter's head,
O ever believe it, from jealouſy free,
A thin paſſing cloud, not the fog of *Ennui.*

Or tender complainings, though love be the theme, [ſcheme;
O beware, my ſweet friends, 'tis a dangerous
And tho' often 'tis tried, mark the *pauvre mari*
Thus by kindneſs incloſ'd in the coop of *Ennui.*

Let confidence, riſing ſuch meanneſs above,
Drown the diſcord of Doubt in the muſic of love; [key,
Your *duette* ſhall thus charm in the natural
No ſharps from vexation, no flats from *Ennui.*

But to you, happy huſbands, in matters more nice,
The Muſe, tho' a maiden, now offers advice;
O drink not too keenly your bumper of glee,
Ev'n eſtacy's cup has ſome dregs of *Ennui.*

Though Love for your lips fill with nectar his bowl, [your ſoul,
Though his warm bath of bleſſings inſpirit
O ſwim not too far on Rapture's high ſea,
Leſt you ſink unawares in the gulph of *Ennui.*

Impatient of law, Paſſion oft will reply,
"Againſt limitations I'll plead till I die;"
But Chief-Juſtice Nature rejects the vain plea,
And ſuch culprits are doom'd to the gaol of *Ennui.*

When huſband and wife are of honey too fond, [pond,
They're like poiſon'd carp at the top of a

Together

Together they gape o'er a cold diſh of tea,
Two muddy ſick fiſh in the net of *Ennui*.

Of Indolence moſt ye mild couples beware,
For the myrtles of Love often hide her ſott ſnare;
The fond doves in their net from his pounce cannot flee, [*Ennui*.
But the lark in the morn 'ſcapes the daemon

Let chearful good-humour, that ſun-ſhine of life, [wife,
With ſmiles in the maiden, illumine the
And mutual attention, in equal degree,
Keep Hymen's bright chain from the ruſt of *Ennui*.

To the Graces together, O fail not to bend,
And both to the voice of the Muſes attend,
So Minerva for you ſhall with Cupid agree,
And preſerve your chaſte flame from the ſmoke of *Ennui*.

SMALL BEER.

IF ever yet, Aönian maids,
You bleſs'd poor bard with timely aids;
Haſte now—and help, without ſuſpenſion,
Bring ſpirit, numbers, rhyme, invention.
Here in ſad plight your votary view;
I'm left—e'en as I bake to brew.
Spare, gentle critics, each default;
You'll find much water, little malt.
Bleſs me! an ague fit, I fear;
O theme to kill a muſe! SMALL BEER!
Thy name, baſe draff, a verſe degrades!
Drink of penurious, muſty maids;
Or drudging rogues, who ſing, like parrots,
In cloſets wedg'd, or fulſome garrets.
Weak, taſteleſs, flatulent remains,
Squeez'd from impoveriſh'd huſks and grains;
Fit ſwill for Bedlam's reſidentiaries,
Or Bridewell's chaſtened penitentiaries.
Hard beverage of the ſtarveling wit,
Thou very ratſbane to the cit;
Sad ſoberer in his midnight hours,
When wine th' infenſate brain o'erpowers.
Stale, thou'rt mere verjuice; gall, when mild;
At beſt, thou'rt but good water ſpoil'd!
Stay—ſome, who own for truth my ſatire,
May yet accuſe her of ill-nature.
For once, if Sire Apollo will,
(In proof of genius, judgement, ſkill)
I'll act the catuiſt in my lays;
In one line lath, in t'other praiſe.
SMALL BEER! cool, elegant regale,
Thou royal child of good King ALE;
In maſſy tankard bright and ſtable
Oft brought up to the princely table;
To temperance, chaſtity, and quiet,
Sworn friend—ſworn foe to feuds and riot;
Reſcuer of captivated reaſon,
From rebel wine's outrageous treaſon;
To the ſick wretch debarr'd admiſſion,
Through envy of the ſly phyſician;
Though known the deadly fever's flame,
By the parch'd patient crav'd, to tame.
Thee jolly tars in plenty ſip,
Converted to ambroſial ſlip.
In poſſet boil'd, or ſugar-ſops,
How dear to ſchool-boy's liquoriſh chops!
By Boniface's cunning art,
Work'd up in bottles, freſh and ſmart,
Thou'rt ſerv'd, on holidays, in glaſſes,
Choice fare to tippling youths and laſſes.
Ah, me! I'm at a ſad extreme!
Quite, quite exhauſted, rhyme and theme!
Tir'd fancy lags, dull numbers droop!
My muſe and barrel, all aſtoop,
Creep on their lees, run thick and ſlow;
Help, Phœbus! I'm a cup too low.

The YEARLY DISTRESS, *or* TYTHING TIME *at* ——,

VERSES *addreſſed to a* COUNTRY CLERGYMAN, *complaining of the* Diſagreeableneſs *of the* Day *annually appointed for* receiving *the* DUES *at the* PARSONAGE.

COME ponder well, for 'tis no jeſt,
To laugh it would be wrong,
The troubles of a worthy prieſt,
The burthen of my ſong.

This prieſt he merry is and blythe
Three quarters of the year,
But oh! it cuts him like a ſcythe
When tything-time draws near.

He then is full of frights and fears
As one at point to die,
And long before the day appears
He heaves up many a ſigh.

For then the farmers come jog, jog,
Along the miry road,
Each heart as heavy as a log,
To make their payments good.

In ſooth, the ſorrow of ſuch days
Is not to be expreſs'd,
When he that takes and he that pays
Are both alike diſtreſs'd.

Now all unwelcome, at his gates
The clumſy ſwains alight,
With rueful faces and bald pates—
He trembles at the ſight.

And well he may, for well he knows,
Each bumkin of the clan,
Inſtead of paying what he owes,
Will cheat him if he can.

So in they come, each makes his leg,
And flings his head before,
And looks as if he came to beg,
And not to quit a ſcore.

"And how does Miſs and Madam do,
"The little boy and all?"
All tight and well; and how do you,
Good Mr What-dy'e-call?

The dinner comes, and down they ſit,
Were e'er ſuch hungry folk!
There's little talking, and no wit.
It is no time to joke.

One

One wipes his noſe upon his ſleeve,
One ſpits upon the floor,
Yet, not to give offence or grieve,
Holds up the cloth before.

The punch goes round, and they are dull
And lumpiſh ſtill as ever,
Like barrels with their bellies full,
They only weigh the heavier.

At length the buſy time begins,
Come, neighbours, we muſt wag—
The money chinks, down drop their chins,
Each lugging out his bag.

One talks of mildew and of froſt,
And one of ſtorms of hail,
And one of pigs that he has loſt
By maggots at the tail.

Quoth one, "A rarer man than you
In pulpit none ſhall hear;
But yet, methinks, to tell you true,
You ſell it plaguy dear."

Oh! why are farmers made ſo coarſe,
Or clergy made ſo fine!
A kick that ſcarce would move a horſe
May kill a ſound divine.

Then let the boobies ſtay at home,
'Twould coſt him, I dare ſay,
Leſs trouble taking twice the ſum
Without the clowns that pay.

QUEEN MARY's LAMENT.
A favourite SONG.

I SIGH and lament me in vain,
Theſe walls can but echo my moan;
Alas! it increaſes the pain,
When I think on the days that are gone.
Thro' the gate of my priſon I ſee
The birds as they wanton in air;
My heart how it pants to be free,
My looks they are wild with deſpair.

Above the oppreſt by my fate,
I burn with contempt for my foes;
Tho' Fortune has alter'd my ſtate,
She ne'er can ſubdue me to thoſe.
Falſe woman! in ages to come,
Thy malice deteſted ſhall be;
And when we are cold in the tomb,
Some heart ſtill will ſorrow for me.

Ye roofs where cold Damps and Diſmay,
With Silence and Solitude, dwell,
How comfortleſs paſſes the day;
How ſad tolls the evening bell!
The owls from the battlements cry,
Hollow winds ſeem to murmur around,
O Mary! prepare thee to die.
My blood, oh! runs cold at the ſound.

EPITAPH.

Written by a French poet for his own monument.

GAILY I liv'd, as eaſe and nature taught,
And ſpent my little life without a thought,
Yet I'm ſurpriz'd by what capricious whim
Death thought of *me*, who never thought of *him*.

HISTORICAL AFFAIRS.

RUSSIA.

Peterſburg, Aug. 1. The following is a tranſlation of the manifeſto publiſhed by order of the Empreſs, upon the occaſion of her troops entering the peninſula of the Crimea, the Cuban, and the iſland of Taman; which countries are thereby declared to be annexed to her Imperial Majeſty's dominions.

WE Catherine the Second, by the Grace of God, Empreſs and ſole Monarch of all the Ruſſias, &c. &c. &c.

OUR laſt war againſt the Ottoman Empire having been attended with the moſt ſignal ſucceſſes, we had certainly acquired the right of re-uniting to the territories of our empire the Crimea, of which we were in poſſeſſion: We, however, heſitated not to ſacrifice that with many other conqueſts, to our ardent deſire of re-eſtabliſhing the public tranquillity, and of confirming the good underſtanding and friendſhip between our empire and the Ottoman Porte. This motive induced us to ſtipulate for the freedom and independence of the Tartars, whom we had reduced by our arms, hoping to remove for ever, by this means, every cauſe of diſſention, and even of coolneſs, between Ruſſia and the Ottoman Porte, expoſed too often to theſe inconveniencies by the form of government which then ſubſiſted among the Tartars.

Great as were our ſacrifices, and our efforts for realiſing thoſe hopes, they were ſoon, to our great regret, conſiderably diminiſhed. The reſtleſneſs natural to the Tartars, fomented by inſinuations, the ſource of which is not unknown to us, cauſed them eaſily to fall into a ſnare laid by foreign hands, which had ſowed amongſt them the ſeeds of diſturbance and confuſion to ſuch a degree, as to induce them to labour for the weakening, and even the total ruin of an edifice which our beneficent cares had erected for the happineſs of that nation, by procuring them liberty and independence, under the authority of a chief elected by themſelves. Hardly was their Khan eſtabliſhed according to this new form of government, before he ſaw himſelf deprived of all authority, and even obliged to deſert his country, to give place to an uſurper, who would again ſubject the Tartars to the yoke of a dominion from which our beneficence had releaſed them. The greater part of them, as blind as they were ignorant, had ſubmitted to that uſurper; the reſt, thinking themſelves too weak to reſiſt, would infallibly have yielded to his yoke; and thus we ſhould have loſt the fruits of our victories, and the principal recompence for the ſacrifices which we willingly made at the laſt

peace, if we had not inſtantly taken under our immediate protection, ſuch of the well-diſpoſed Tartars, who, prizing the bleſſings of their new political exiſtence, lamented their being forced to ſubmit to the uſurper who had expelled their lawful Khan. By thus effectually protecting them, we furniſhed them with the power and the means of chuſing a new Khan, in the room of Sahib Gheray, and of eſtabliſhing an adminiſtration analogous to this ſtate of affairs. It was to attain this end that our military forces were put in motion, that a conſiderable body of our troops were ordered, notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the ſeaſon, to enter the Crimea, where they were ſubſiſted at our expence, and obliged to exert the power of our arms for the ſupport of the good cauſe, in order to recall ſuch of the Tartars as were eſtranged from it by their revolt.

The public is not ignorant that a rupture between Ruſſia and the Ottoman Porte had very near enſued upon this occaſion: but, thanks to the Divine aſſiſtance, we diſpoſed matters in ſuch a manner, that the Ottoman Porte again acknowledged the independence of the Tartars, and the validity of the election of Schaghin Gheray, their lawful ſovereign. Notwithſtanding all the inconveniencies above mentioned, as long as we were ſuſtained and animated by the hope of re-eſtabliſhing the repoſe neceſſary to the advantage and preſervation of good neighbourhood with the Ottoman empire, we regarded the Crimea, according to tenor and letter of the treaties, as a free and independent country, confining ourſelves ſolely to appeaſing the troubles which prevailed amongſt them: from our love of peace, we found in this conduct a ſufficient recompence, for the great expences incurred by it; but we were ſoon undeceived in this reſpect, by the freſh revolt occaſioned in the Crimea laſt year, the encouragement of which always flowed from the ſame ſource. We have been obliged, in conſequence, to have recourſe again to conſiderable armaments, and to cauſe troops to enter into the Crimea and the Cuban, whoſe preſence is become indiſpenſable for maintaining tranquillity and good order in the adjacent countries. The ſad experience of every day demonſtrates more clearly, that if the ſovereignty of the Ottoman Porte in the Crimea was a perpetual ſource of diſcord between our two empires, the independence of the Tartars expoſes us to ſubjects of contention no leſs numerous and important, ſince the long ſervitude to which that people have been accuſtomed, has rendered the greater part of the individuals incapable of valuing the advantages of the new ſituation procured for them by that independence, of which we fought to give them the enjoyment; and which laying us under the neceſſity of being always armed, occaſions not only great expences, but alſo expoſes our troops to inevitable and continual fatigues.

The efforts they made to extinguiſh the flame of diſcord, in ſuccouring the well-intentioned of that nation, expoſed them to the violences of the ſeditious and ill-intentioned, whom we were willing to leave unpuniſhed, in order to avoid even the ſhadow of an act of ſovereignty, ſo long as we could cheriſh the leaſt hope of at length reſtoring good order, and preventing, by this means, the eſſential intereſts of our empire from being injured.

But, to our great regret, all theſe meaſures, dictated ſolely by our love of humanity, tended only to bring upon us loſſes and damages, which we have the more ſenſibly at heart, as they affected our ſubjects. The loſs in men is not to be appreciated; we will not attempt to eſtimate it; that in money, according to the moſt moderate calculations, amounts to upwards of twelve millions of roubles. To theſe particulars is to be added another of the utmoſt importance, both in its object, and with regard to its conſequences. We have juſt been informed, that the Porte has begun to lay claim to the exerciſe of ſovereignty in the Tartar dominions, by ſending one of their officers, at the head of a detachment of troops, to the iſland of Taman, who has even proceeded to cauſe the officer to be publicly beheaded who was ſent to him by the Khan Schaghin Gheray, with a commiſſion only to inquire of him what were the motives for his arrival in that iſland; and, what evidently proves the nature of the miſſion of this commandant of the troops is, that he made no difficulty in declaring openly to the inhabitants of Taman, that he looked upon them as ſubjects of the Porte. This deciſive, though unexpected ſtep, convinceing us of the inutility of the ſacrifices we had made upon the laſt peace, annuls, in conſequence, the engagements we had contracted, with the ſole intention of firmly eſtabliſhing the freedom and independence of the Tartars, and ſufficiently authoriſes us to enter again into the enjoyment of thoſe rights which we had lawfully acquired by conqueſt: the more ſo, as it is the only means remaining for us to ſecure hereafter a ſolid and permanent peace between the two empires. Animated, therefore, with a ſincere deſire of confirming and maintaining the laſt peace concluded with the Porte, by preventing the continual diſputes which the affairs of the Crimea produced, our duty to ourſelf, and the preſervation of the ſecurity of our empire, equally demand our taking the firm reſolution to put an end, once for all, to the troubles in the Crimea; and, for this purpoſe, we reunite to our empire the peninſula

ninſula of Crimea, the iſland of Taman, and all the Cuban, as a juſt indemnification for the loſſes ſuſtained, and the expences we have been obliged to incur in maintaining the peace and welfare of theſe territories.

In declaring to the inhabitants of thoſe countries by the preſent manifeſto, that ſuch is our Imperial pleaſure, we promiſe them, for us and our ſucceſſors in the Imperial throne of Ruſſia, that they ſhall be treated upon an equality with our ancient ſubjects; and that, in taking them under our high protection, we will defend againſt all people their perſons, their eſtates, their temples, and the religion they profeſs: that they ſhall enjoy the moſt abſolute liberty of conſcience, without the leaſt reſtriction in the public exerciſe of their worſhip and their ceremonies; and that not only the nation in general, but alſo each individual in particular, ſhall participate in all the advantages enjoyed by our ancient ſubjects. But we alſo expect, from the gratitude of our new ſubjects, that, touched with theſe favours, they will be ſenſible of the value of this fortunate revolution, which removes them from a convulſed ſtate of diſturbances and diſſentions, to one of entire ſecurity and perfect tranquillity, under the protection of the laws; and that, ſtriving to imitate the ſubmiſſion, zeal, and fidelity of thoſe who have long had the happineſs of living under our government, they will render themſelves worthy of our Imperial favour, beneficence, and protection.

Given at our Imperial reſidence of St Peterſburg, the 8th of April, in the year of Grace 1783, and in the 21ſt year of our reign,

(ſigned with her Imperial Majeſty's own hand) CATHERINE.

Lond. gaz. (L. S)

GERMANY.

Franckfort, June 20. Laſt year the number of marriages in all the Pruſſian dominions, amounted to 43,743, births 205,407, of which 105,822 were boys, and 99,585 girls; the number of deaths was 171,101, of which 85,825 were males, and 85,276 females. The military were not included in this account.

Edict of his Imperial Majeſty againſt Hermits.

"The Emperor, &c. wiſhing to put an end to the inconveniencies which reſult from the reſidence of the hermits in the woods and other parts of the low countries, hath thought proper to decree as follows:

Art. I. All the hermits, without diſtinction, who are at preſent eſtabliſhed in any hermitage, or other habitation, in the woods or other parts of the country, ſhall be allowed fifteen days from the publication of theſe preſents to withdraw themſelves from them, and to quit the name and habit of hermits.

II. His Majeſty forbids all and every one, to take, or to put on in future, either the name or apparel of hermit; and alſo commands all his officers, and thoſe of the law departments, not to tolerate or permit the future eſtabliſhment within their diſtricts, of any ſolitary habitation under the appellation of a hermitage.

III. The fiſcal counſellors of the reſpective provinces ſhall immediately form and tranſmit to government a liſt of the eſtabliſhed hermitages which are within their reſpective diſtricts, with an account of their effects, and of the charges of theſe foundations, and alſo of the chapels which may be annexed to them, that they may be determined upon accordingly.

IV. The hermits who officiate in theſe chapels may continue to reſide in them till further notice; but they ſhall immediately quit the name and habit of hermits.

Commanded and decreed by his Majeſty, to all whom it may concern, to regulate their conduct, and to conform themſelves according to theſe precepts. Given at Bruſſels, July 2. 1783.

DE REUL."

AMERICA.

In the Magazine for July, p. 381. we inſerted a letter from Gen. Waſhington to the Preſident of Congreſs, reſpecting the recompence to the army for their meritorious ſervices, and the reſolution of Congreſs thereupon, dated March 26. We ſhall now lay before our readers the following papers, which have ſince appeared, and contain an account of the further proceedings upon this ſubject, together with the tumults at Philadelphia, which obliged the Preſident of Congreſs to iſſue the proclamation (ſee p. 383.) deſiring that body to meet at Princetown.

Juſt at the moment when Congreſs had given their ſanction to the act of commutation, intelligence arrived that the proviſional articles of peace were ſigned; but the arrival of the definitive treaty being delayed beyond the general expectation, and it being found neceſſary to diminiſh the public expenditures, Congreſs

greſs thought proper to paſs the following reſolution:

By the United States in Congreſs aſſembled, May 26.

On motion, reſolved, That the commander in chief be inſtructed to grant furloughs to the non-commiſſioned officers and ſoldiers in the ſervice of the United States, inliſted to ſerve during the war, who ſhall be diſcharged as ſoon as the definitive treaty of peace is concluded, together with a proportionable number of commiſſioned officers of the different grades; and that the ſecretary at war and commander in chief take the proper meaſures for conducting thoſe troops to their reſpective homes, in ſuch manner as may be moſt convenient to themſelves, and to the ſtates through which they may paſs; and that the men thus furloughed be allowed to take their arms with them.

Charles Thomson, Sec.

Upon the promulgation of this reſolution, the ſubſequent addreſs was preſented to the Commander in Chief.

Sir, It is difficult for us to expreſs the regret we feel at being obliged again to ſolicit your Excellency's attention and patronage. Next to the anguiſh which the proſpect of our own wretchedneſs excites in our breaſts, is the pain which ariſes from a knowledge of your anxiety on account of thoſe men who have been the ſharers of your fortunes, and have had the honour of being your companions through the various viciſſitudes of the war. Nothing, therefore, but neceſſity could induce us to a repreſentation which we know muſt give you concern.

Your Excellency has ſo intimate a knowledge of the condition of the army, as to render a particular delineation unneceſſary. As you have been a witneſs of our ſufferings during a war uncommon in its nature, and unparallelled in many circumſtances attending it, ſo you are now, Sir, no leſs a witneſs of the unequal burden which has fallen upon us from the want of that proviſion, to which, from our aſſiduous and unremitting ſervices, we conceive we are intitled. Having recently expreſſed our ſenſe of what was due to our diſtreſs, having repeated from your Excellency the confidence we had, that our accounts would be liquidated, the balances aſcertained, and adequate funds provided for payment, previous to our being diſbanded — having ſeen, with pleaſure, the approbation which Congreſs gave our reliance — it is with a mixture of aſtoniſhment and chagrin that we view the late reſolve of Congreſs, by which the ſoldiers for the war, and a proportionate number of officers, are to be furloughed without any one of thoſe important objects being accompliſhed: and, to complete the ſcene of woe, are to be compelled to leave the army without the means of defraying the debts we have neceſſarily incurred in the courſe of ſervice, or even of gratifying thoſe menials in the pittance which is their due, much leſs to carry with us that ſupport and comfort to our families, of which, from our long military ſervices, they have been deprived. No leſs expoſed then to the inſults of the meaneſt followers of the army, than to the arreſts of the ſheriff; deprived of the ability to aſſiſt our families, and without an evidence that any thing is due to us for our ſervices; and conſequently without the leaſt proſpect of obtaining credit for a temporary ſubſiſtence until we can get into buſineſs — to what quarter can we look? We take the liberty to ſay, Sir, only to your Excellency. And, from the ſincerity of our hearts, we do it, no leſs from a perſuaſion of the efficiency of your further efforts in our favour, than from the kind aſſurances you have been pleaſed to give us of your ſupport.

To your Excellency then we make our appeal, and in the moſt ſolemn manner; from that abhorrence of oppreſſion and injuſtice which firſt unſheathed our ſwords; from the remembrance of the common dangers through which we have paſſed; and from the recollection of thoſe aſtoniſhing events which have been effected by our united efforts; permit us to ſolicit your further aid, and to intreat, that the order of the 2d inſtant, founded on the act of Congreſs of the 26th of May laſt, may be ſuſpended or varied in its operation, ſo far as that no officer or ſoldier be obliged to receive a furlough until that honourable body can be appriſed of the wretched ſituation into which the army muſt be plunged by a conformity to it; that your Excellency will endeavour to prevail on Congreſs — nay, that on the principles of common juſtice you will inſiſt, that neither officer nor ſoldier be compelled to leave the field until a liquidation of accounts can be effected, till the balances are aſcertained,

certificates

certificates for the ſums due given, including the commutation of half-pay to the officers, and the gratuity of eighty dollars to the ſoldiers, and till a ſupply of money can be furniſhed ſufficient to carry us from the field of glory with honour to ourſelves and credit to our country. We ſtill wiſh to believe, that that country to which we have been ſo long devoted will never look with indifference on the diſtreſſes of thoſe of her ſons who have ſo eſſentially contributed to the eſtabliſhment of freedom, the ſecurity of property, and the rearing of an empire.

In the name and behalf of the Generals and Officers commanding regiments and corps in the cantonment on Hudſon's river,

W. HEATH,
June 5. Major-General, Preſident.

To the above addreſs Gen. Waſhington returned the following anſwer, viz.

SIR, *Head Quarters, June 6.*

BEFORE I make a reply to the ſubject of the addreſs of the generals and officers commanding the regiments and corps of this army, preſented by yourſelf yeſterday, I intreat that thoſe gentlemen will accept my warmeſt acknowledgement for the confidence they have been pleaſed to repoſe in me; they may be aſſured it ſhall never be abuſed: and I beg they will be perſuaded, that as no man can poſſibly be better acquainted than I am with the paſt merits and ſervices of the army, ſo no one can poſſibly be more ſtrongly impreſſed with their preſent ineligible ſituation, feel a keener ſenſibility at their diſtreſſes, or more ardently deſire to alleviate or remove them —but it would be unneceſſary, perhaps, to enter into a detail of what I have done, and what I am ſtill attempting to do, in order to aſſiſt in the accompliſhment of this intereſting purpoſe — let it be ſufficient to obſerve, I do not yet deſpair of ſucceſs; for I am perfectly convinced that the States cannot, without involving themſelves in national bankruptcy and ruin, refuſe to comply with the requiſitions of Congreſs, who, it muſt be acknowledged, have done every thing in their power to obtain ample and complete juſtice for the army, and whoſe great object in the preſent meaſure undoubtedly was, by a reduction of expence to enable the financier to make the three months payment to the army, which on all hands has been agreed to be abſolutely and indiſpenſably neceſſary. To explain this matter, I beg leave to inſert an extract of a letter from the ſuperintendant of finance, dated the 29th ult.

" It is now above a month ſince the committee conferred with me on that ſubject, and I then told them no payment could be made to the army but by means of a paper anticipation; and unleſs our expenditures were immediately and conſiderably reduced, even that could not be done. Our expenditures have nevertheleſs been continued, and our revenues leſſen; the States growing daily more and more remiſs in their collections. The conſequence is, that I cannot make payment in the manner firſt intended. The notes iſſued for this purpoſe would have been payable at two, four, and ſix months from the date, but at preſent they will be at ſix months, and even that will ſoon become impracticable, unleſs our expences be immediately curtailed.

I ſhall cauſe ſuch notes to be iſſued for three months pay to the army; and I muſt intreat, Sir, that every influence be uſed with the States to abſorb them together with my other engagements by taxation."

Three days ago a meſſenger was diſpatched by me to urge the neceſſity of forwarding theſe notes with the greateſt poſſible expedition.

Under this ſtate of circumſtances I need ſcarcely add, that the expence of every day in feeding the whole army, will increaſe very conſiderably the inability of the public to diſcharge the debts already incurred, at leaſt for a conſiderable time to come.

Although the officers of the army very well know my official ſituation, that I am only a ſervant of the public, and that it is not for me to diſpenſe with orders which it is my duty to carry into execution—yet as furloughs in all ſervices are conſidered as a matter of indulgence, and not of compulſion; as Congreſs, I am perſuaded, entertain the beſt diſpoſition toward the army, and, as I apprehend, in a very ſhort time, the two principal articles of complaint will be removed—until the further pleaſure of Congreſs can be known, I ſhall not heſitate to comply with the wiſhes of the army, under theſe reſervations only, that officers ſufficient to conduct the men who

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chuſe to receive furloughs, will attend them either on furlough or by detachment. The propriety and neceſſity of this meaſure muſt be obvious to all; it need not therefore be enforced; and with regard to the non-commiſſioned officers and privates, ſuch as from a peculiarity of circumſtances wiſh not to receive furloughs at this time, will give in their names by twelve o'clock to-morrow to the commanding officers, that on a report to the adjutant-general an equal number of men engaged for three years, may be furloughed, which will make the ſaving of expences exactly the ſame to the public.

I cannot but hope the notes will ſoon arrive, and that the ſettlement of accounts may be completed by the aſſiſtance of the paymaſters in a very few days. In the mean time I ſhall have the honour of laying the ſentiments of the Generals and Officers commanding regiments and corps before Congreſs. They are expreſſed in ſuch a decent, candid, and affecting manner, that I am certain every mark of attention will be paid to them. I have the honour to be, &c.
Maj. Gen. Heath.

The two preceding papers were incloſed in the following letter to his Excellency the Preſident of Congreſs.

"*Head Quarters, Newburgh, June* 7. SIR, I have the honour to incloſe to your Excellency the copy of an addreſs to me from the Generals and Officers commanding regiments and corps, together with my anſwer to it. Theſe incloſures will explain the diſtreſſes which reſulted from the meaſures now carrying into execution, in conſequence of the reſolution of the 26th of May; but the ſenſibility occaſioned by a parting ſcene under ſuch peculiar circumſtances, will not admit of deſcription.

The two ſubjects of complaint with the army appear to be, the delay of the three months payment which had been expected, and the want of a ſettlement of accounts. I have thought myſelf authoriſed to aſſure them, Congreſs had and would attend particularly to their grievances, and have made ſome little variations reſpecting furloughs, from what was at firſt propoſed. The ſecretary at war will be able to explain the reaſon and propriety of this alteration.

While I conſider it a tribute of juſtice on this occaſion to mention the temperate and orderly behaviour of the whole army, and particularly the accommodating ſpirit of the officers in arranging themſelves to the command of the battalions which will be compoſed of the three years men; permit me to recal to mind all their former ſufferings and merits, and to recommend their reaſonable requeſts to the early and favourable notice of Congreſs. I have the honour to be, &c.

WEST INDIES.

The following letters paſſed between Don Galvez, governor of Louiſiana, and his Royal Highneſs Prince William Henry.

"*Cape Francoiſe, April* 6. 1783. SIR, The Spaniſh troops cantoned throughout the country have not, as the French, had the happineſs to take up their arms to ſalute your Royal Highneſs, nor that of paying you thoſe marks of reſpect and conſideration which are your due; it is what they will ever regret.

I have in confinement at Louiſiana the principal perſon concerned in the revolt of the Natchez, with ſome of his accomplices. They have forfeited their parole and oath of fidelity. A council of war, founded on equitable laws, has condemned them to death, and the execution of their ſentence waits only my confirmation, as governor of the colony. They are all Engliſh. Will you be pleaſed, Sir, to accept their pardon and their lives, in the name of the Spaniſh army, and of my King? It is, I truſt, the beſt preſent that can be offered to one Prince in the name of another. Mine is generous, and will approve my conduct.

In caſe your Royal Highneſs deigns to intereſt yourſelf for thoſe unfortunate men, I have the honour to ſend incloſed an order for their being delivered the moment any veſſel arrives at Louiſiana, communicating your pleaſure. We ſhall conſider ourſelves happy if this can be agreeable to you. I have the honour to be, &c.

B. D. GALVEZ."

"*Port-Royal, Jamaica, April* 13. SIR, I want words to expreſs to your Excellency my juſt ſenſe of your polite letter, of the delicate manner in which you made it be delivered, and your generous conduct towards the unfortunate. Their pardon, which you have been pleaſed to grant on my account, is the moſt agreeable preſent you could have offered me; and is ſtrongly characteriſtic of the brave-

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ry and gallantry of the Spaniſh nation. This inſtance increaſes, if poſſible, my opinion of your Excellency's humanity, which has appeared on ſo many occaſions in the courſe of the late war.

Adm. Rowley is to diſpatch a veſſel to Louiſiana for the priſoners. I am convinced they will ever think of your Excellency's clemency with gratitude; and I have ſent a copy of your letter to the King my father, who will be fully ſenſible of your Excellency's attention to me.

I requeſt my compliments to Mrs Galvez; and that you will be aſſured, that actions ſo noble as thoſe of your Excellency will ever be remembered by

WILLIAM HENRY."

ENGLAND.

St James's, Aug. 19. On Sunday laſt one of the King's meſſengers arrived here with the ratification of the proviſional articles, ſigned the 30th of November laſt, which was exchanged on the 13th inſtant at Paris, between his Majeſty's plenipotentiary and the plenipotentiaries of the United States of America. *Lond. gaz.*

The following letter was received by the Lord Mayor, Aug. 29.

" My LORD, *St James's, Aug.* 29.

I have the honour to acquaint your Lordſhip, that diſpatches were this morning received from the Duke of Manchester, dated the 26th inſtant, in which his Grace informs me, that the 3d of next month is the day agreed upon for ſigning the definitive treaties with the plenipotentiaries of the Moſt Chriſtian and Catholic Kings, and thoſe of the United States of America.—— I loſe no time in ſending your Lordſhip this information, that you may give ſuch public notice of it as you ſhall judge proper. I am, with great reſpect, my Lord, your Lordſhip's moſt obedient humble ſervant. C. J. FOX."

Auguſt 12. the Prince of Wales's birth-day, was obſerved at Windſor with every demonſtration of joy conſiſtent with the ſituation of her Majeſty. Their Majeſties received the compliments of the nobility in a private way, as the Prince's birth-day is not to be kept at court till the 21ſt of April.

London, Aug. 16. Her Majeſty has ſuffered more conſiderably in her preſent delivery than heretofore; and for ſome days was very ill; on Thurſday morning ſhe was very much recovered; but in the evening ſhe was ſuddenly taken ill, and alarming apprehenſions were entertained of her recovery. Before Friday morning, however, her illneſs had taken a favourable turn, and an expreſs arrived at Lord John Cavendiſh's office about ſix o'clock with an account of the Queen's recovery. Dr Ford ſaid, the indiſpoſition had been occaſioned by the revolution of the milk, and all the alarming appearances were gone; and her Majeſty was in a fair way of being ſpeedily reinſtated in her health.

The London gazette of Auguſt 16. contains his Majeſty's order in council, [p. 388.] that the quarantine at preſent ſubſiſting upon all ſhips and veſſels coming from Dantzick, or any other port or place in Royal or Ducal Pruſſia or Pomerania, be taken off; and that all ſhips and veſſels already arrived, or that may hereafter arrive from thoſe places, be permitted to diſcharge their reſpective ladings, without unpacking, opening, and airing, and without performing any quarantine; provided that the maſters make oath, that their crews are free from all infection, and that they have not had communication with any ſhip or veſſel coming from any infected place.

Friday Auguſt 29. was the day appointed for the execution of William Wynne Ryland [p. 388.], John Ferdinando Lloyd *, James Brown, alias Oatley, Thomas Burgeſs, James Rivers, and John Edwards. Theſe unfortunate men were brought out of Newgate ſoon after nine o'clock. Ryland and Lloyd were each in a coach; the firſt attended by the ordinary of Newgate, another clergyman, a gentleman in mourning, and a ſheriff's officer; the other by a clergyman and a ſheriff's officer. Brown, Burgeſs, and Edwards were tied in one cart, and Rivers in another. Rivers was ſo exhauſted by ſickneſs, that he was obliged to be carried by two men from the gaol into the cart. During the melancholy proceſſion from Newgate to the place of execution, Ryland preſer-

* This is the ſame Lloyd who ſome time ago travelled through different parts of England and Scotland, giving himſelf out for a clergyman. He ſucceeded ſo well in this, that he was allowed to preach in ſeveral places; and it is ſaid, gave great ſatisfaction to his audiences. The crime for which he ſuffered was a robbery committed in the houſe of Mr John Martin in King's ſtreet, Soho.

ved an uninterrupted ſerenity of countenance and deportment. He ſpoke but little, but, when he did, it ſeemed to be with great earneſtneſs. Lloyd was no ſooner in the coach than he prayed in an audible voice; and, till he reached the fatal ſpot, he ceaſed not to pray and ſing with every appearance of devotion.

The three men in the firſt cart were exceedingly devout; but Rivers appeared to be too much worn out in ſtrength and ſpirits to have a juſt conception of his unhappy ſituation. He was languid, fainting almoſt to inſenſibility, and ſeemed confuſed and terrified, at being overtaken by a violent death, almoſt at the moment when he was ſinking into the grave by natural decay.

About five minutes before eleven o'clock, Ryland's coach drew on the right of the gallows, as did Lloyd's on the left; and between them the cart; ſoon after which a violent ſtorm of thunder, lightning, and rain came on, when the ſheriffs gave orders for a delay of the execution. When the ſtorm had ſubſided, and ſome time had been employed in prayer, Rivers was lifted from one into the other cart, which backing to Lloyd's coach, he alighted therefrom, and entered the vehicle, and after the ropes had been fixed about their necks, Ryland ſtepped from the coach to join his unhappy fellow-ſufferers. After a converſation of at leaſt ten minutes between Ryland and Mr Vilette, ordinary of Newgate, and the ſame time employed in an earneſt diſcourſe between Lloyd and Burgeſs, all the malefactors joined in ſinging the hymn called "The Sinners Lamentation," neither of them expreſſing any extraordinary agitation but Lloyd, who was continually wringing his hands, and devoutly appealing to Heaven.

On account of his weakneſs, Rivers was ſeated during the devotions; and when the cap was drawn over his face, the rope to which he was affixed was drawn up, it being found that he would otherwiſe hang too low. The caps were then drawn over the faces of the other priſoners, and a white handkerchief tied over Ryland's cap. The cart was then driven away, and all were nearly at the ſame inſtant motionleſs, except Edwards, who for about half a minute writhed his body, as if in great pain.

They were turned off about a quarter before twelve; and after hanging the uſual time, the bodies were cut down, and delivered to the reſpective friends of the deceaſed for interment. The remains of Ryland and Lloyd were taken away in the coaches.

So great a body of people had not been ſeen on a like occaſion ſince the execution of Dr Dodd. Excluſive of the uſual accommodations, a vaſt number of temporary ſtages were erected; and gentlemens and hired carriages were innumerable. Some rooms, for accommodating private companies were actually let at the enormous rate of from ſix to ten guineas.

Ryland was in mourning, and wore a tail wig: Lloyd was dreſſed in an orange-coloured corded coat, black waiſtcoat and breeches, and wore black gloves. Through the whole of this trying ſcene, the former conducted himſelf with remarkable ſerenity and fortitude, ſtrongly indicating that he was prepared for, and perfectly reconciled to his fate; the latter ſeemed to want that calmneſs which peculiarly diſtinguiſhed the dying moments of the other.

The circumſtance of two priſoners being conveyed in ſeparate carriages to Tyburn, has not been parallelled for ſeveral years paſt. This mode of conveyance uſed to be deemed a great indulgence; but the expanded humanity of modern times has granted it to almoſt every convict that poſſeſſed the leaſt reſpectability of character, and made a proper application for the diſtinction.

On the 31ſt of Auguſt advice was received at the ſecretary of ſtate's office, that the laſt felons ſentenced for tranſportation, to the amount of 150, which were put on board the tranſport-ſhip about a fortnight ſince, had roſe on the captain and crew in the Downs, whom they confined, after which they got on ſhore at Deal, and all made their eſcape. Several of them, however, have been ſince taken and committed to priſon.

On Saturday, July 19. came on in the Court of King's Bench, before Lord Mansfield and a ſpecial jury, the trial of Chriſtopher Atkinſon, late contractor to his Majeſty's victualling-board, and member of parliament for Heydon in Yorkſhire, for wilful and corrupt perjury. The indictment contained nine counts, each upon a ſpecific charge. The facts ſtated on the part of the proſecution were, that the defendant Chriſtopher Atkinſon, Eſq; had made a contract with the commiſſioners of his Majeſty's navy,

navy, for the purpoſe of ſupplying a certain quantity of corn; the condition of which agreement was, that Mr Atkinſon ſhould have commiſſion upon ſaid quantity of corn, as a compenſation for his trouble in purchaſing the ſame, but ſhould not charge any profit whatſoever, except the ſaid commiſſion: That the corn being delivered by Mr Atkinſon, he gave in his accounts, ſpecifying the names of the perſons from whom he had purchaſed, the prices paid by him to each perſon reſpectively, and charging his commiſſion thereon, which accounts were reſpectively delivered in upon oath of ſaid Atkinſon: That in each of theſe accounts ſtated in the indictment, Mr Atkinſon had charged the commiſſioners of his Majeſty's navy with an advanced price, beyond what he had paid to the corn-ſellers, with an intent to defraud, and, having done ſo, was thereby guilty of wilful and corrupt perjury.——To each of the nine counts Mr Atkinſon pleaded not guilty.——In ſupport of theſe facts, Mr Bennet and ſeveral of the other witneſſes were called, the amount of whoſe evidence came to this, that Mr Atkinſon had charged in the accounts delivered by him to the commiſſioners of the navy, of corn purchaſed for their uſe, prices exceeding what he had paid. On the part of the defendant nothing material was produced.

Earl Mansfield, in his charge to the jury, ſtated the agreement made between the defendant and the commiſſioners, and obſerved, that the only point for their conſideration was, whether the defendant had charged higher prices than he had paid: if they thought he had, they muſt find him guilty; if not, they muſt acquit him.

After a trial which laſted ſeven hours, the jury withdrew for a few minutes, and returned their verdict GUILTY.

Sentence, as uſual in ſuch caſes, was poſtponed till the enſuing term, Mr Atkinſon giving bail for his appearance.

Mr Atkinſon was errand-boy to a factor of conſiderable eminence in the city, and from that was promoted to be porter. In proceſs of time he became clerk in the compting houſe, where diligence and attention gained him the entire confidence of his maſter. The old gentleman called Mr Atkinſon up to the dining-room one day, and addreſſed him in the following manner: "You are a very diligent young man, and I mean to take you into partnerſhip. I know you have no money, but I don't mind that; and I will ſtill do more: I have a daughter, whom, if you like her, and ſhe likes you, I conſent to give you in marriage; go to her and tell her this." Aſtoniſhment ſtruck Mr Atkinſon almoſt dumb—but he did not neglect ſo great and ample an opportunity to make his fortune. He went to the young lady, obtained her conſent, was wedded accordingly, and became partner with and ſon-in-law to the old gentleman on the ſame day. In about a year and a half both the father and daughter died, leaving him in poſſeſſion of 150,000l. and a moſt extenſive corn-buſineſs. He happened one day, ſome years after this event, to be at Lloyd's Coffee-houſe; it was when the American war became ſerious. The note of a certain Lord, then high in the naval department, for 750l. was offered in payment by one merchant to another, but refuſed becauſe it was over due. Mr Atkinſon heard the tranſaction; and as it was proffered at 50l. under value, he took it up, and gave a draft on his banker for the ſum. This note brought him into the preſent misfortune. He waited on the Noble Lord, told him what he had done, and that he was induced to take up the note for the honour of the then adminiſtration, who, he ſaid, were much railed at in the city. He added, that he did not want the money, and that if his Lordſhip had any pecuniary demands upon him which he was neceſſitated immediately to diſcharge, he would lend him 10,000l. on his bond, payable in five or ten years, with intereſt. His Lordſhip was aſtoniſhed, and requeſted Mr Atkinſon to come and dine with him the next day, and they would talk over the matter. Mr Atkinſon accordingly attended, and the Noble Lord after dinner aſked him if he was ſtill of the ſame mind in reſpect to the 10,000l.—Mr Atkinſon replied, that he had the money in notes in his pocket for the purpoſe. The bond was ſigned, and the bank notes delivered. "*Is there any way in which we can ſerve you?*" ſaid the Noble Lord. "*Very eſſentially, replied Atkinſon; I am a corn factor, and you want much of that article in America; I will do it as cheap as any other perſon, if you will let me have the whole of the contract.*" All was ſigned and ſettled, and

orders given that Mr Atkinſon ſhould have the whole buſineſs of ſupplying the troops with corn. The contract was extenſive and lucrative, and Mr Atkinſon made a conſiderable fortune by it. This connection alſo obtained him a ſeat in parliament. It is ſaid, a ſuit will be commenced againſt him to recover the ſurcharge that he has made on every article above the average market price.

On July 23. was tried at Guildhall, before Lord Chief Baron Skynner, an action brought by Mr Sutherland againſt the Hon. James Murray, late Governor of Minorca, for ſuſpending him from his office as Judge Advocate of the Vice-Admiralty Court in the above iſland.

After opening the cauſe, the leading counſel for Mr Sutherland ſtated the hardſhips he had ſuffered in conſequence of his ſuſpenſion by Gov. Murray. He aſſerted, that he had been diſplaced without any cauſe whatever; and that, ſuppoſing Gov. Murray had ſufficient diſcretionary powers lodged in him to warrant the diſmiſſion of Mr Sutherland, yet the exerciſe of them in the caſe in queſtion was improper and unjuſtifiable; but as it was denied that any ſuch authority was veſted in him, his conduct muſt appear the more culpable; therefore, ſeeing that the ſteps taken by Gov. Murray in this buſineſs were illegal, it was but reaſonable that Mr Sutherland ſhould be reſtored to all the emoluments of his office, from the time of his ſuſpenſion, until the iſland of Minorca was ſurrendered to the enemy; and that he ſhould receive alſo ſuch other damages as the jury ſhould think his ſufferings merited. The counſel proved the appointment of Mr Sutherland to be Judge Advocate of the Vice-Admiralty Court, by producing the patent under which he enjoyed that ſtation. A Mr Collins (who appeared to have been appointed by Gov. Murray to act, together with another gentleman, in Mr Sutherland's place, until his Majeſty's pleaſure was known with regard to his ſuſpenſion) was called upon to ſhew what were the profits made by the office of Judge Advocate, from the period when Mr Sutherland was ſuſpended, which was the 2d of Auguſt 1780, until the iſland had been captured by the enemy; which he ſaid amounted to about 3700l. Here the counſel for the plaintiff reſted their evidence, and aſſerted that Mr Sutherland had a juſt claim to all the emoluments of his office, the amount of which they had aſcertained.

The counſel for the defendant ſtated the motives which induced the Governor to ſuſpend Mr Sutherland, which were briefly as follows: Various complaints had reached the ears of Gov. Murray againſt Mr Pons, deputy regiſter in the Vice-Admiralty court, (where Mr Sutherland preſided); his miſconduct, in having large concerns in privateers; in buying ſhares of ſailors prizes; in divulging the ſentences of the court before the time of publication; and in committing a variety of other miſdemeanors, which rendered him a very improper perſon for the employment he was in. There were ſo very ſtrong appearances of diſhoneſty in the buſineſs, that Gov. Murray could not forbear his endeavours to remove a man who had ſo glaringly abuſed the truſt repoſed in him. He therefore ſignified his mind on the ſubject to Mr Sutherland, and his deſire that a Dr Salord, a very experienced civilian, and a man of the greateſt character in the iſland, not only for his knowledge of the laws, but for his unimpaired integrity, ſhould be placed in the ſtead of Mr Pons. Mr Sutherland refuſed to adminiſter the oaths of office to the gentleman whom the Governor recommended to the employment. In this ſituation the Governor had but two alternatives; either to allow his Majeſty's government to fall into diſrepute, or to remove the perſon by whoſe obſtinacy that was likely to happen. He made no heſitation in chuſing the latter; and his conduct was juſtified by the approbation of the then miniſtry of this country, who treated with contempt a complaint offered by Mr Sutherland, until he confeſſed his error. The Governor hearing of this, wrote over to the miniſtry, that Mr Sutherland might be reſtored to his office, without any injury to the dignity and reputation of his Majeſty's government, provided that gentleman previouſly made the ampleſt apology for that impropriety of conduct which had occaſioned his removal. Lord Hillſborough informed Mr Sutherland of the terms on which only he could be reinſtated, and theſe he readily embraced, and was in conſequence on his paſſage thither, when being informed of the capture of the iſland by the Spaniards, he immediately recanted all the confeſſions he had before made

made to Lord Hillſborough, and commenced a legal proceſs for damages, againſt a man whom, but for the event of the capture of Minorca, he was on his paſſage to aſk pardon for offending.

After the examination of the defendant's witneſſes, an able reply was made by the counſel for the plaintiff. The judge then ſummed up the evidence with great ability. He obſerved, that however candid, conſciencious, and upright the motives were which actuated Gov. Murray to ſuſpend Mr Sutherland from his office, he was not in his opinion warranted to do ſo *in point of law*. There were indeed certain exigencies, which, as the counſel for the defendant had very properly remarked, authoriſed a governor to remove any man in ſubordinate employment from an office; but the law in general was, that where the Crown appoints, none but the Crown can poſſibly remove. And as he could not look upon the preſent caſe to be an exception to that general rule, if the jury were of his mind, they muſt of courſe find for the plaintiff, and give him ſuch damages as they ſhould conſider him intitled to.

The jury then withdrew, and after ſome time returned with a verdict in favour of Mr Sutherland, awarding him 5000 l. damages.

SCOTLAND.

An advertiſement to the following purport, from the Society of Scots Antiquaries, was publiſhed in the Edinburgh papers of May 24.

Muſeum, May 6. 1783. The Society of Antiquaries of Scotland inform the public, That they obtained his Majeſty's Royal Charter on the 29th of March laſt, erecting them into a body politic and corporate. This information will remove the anxiety of the friends of the Society, and ſatisfy its generous donors, that the numerous and valuable donations received from them, inſtead of being allowed to periſh, will be perpetually preſerved, under the patronage of our moſt gracious Sovereign, and the protection of the laws of our country. The Society cannot omit this opportunity of expreſſing their gratitude to the encouragers of an inſtitution, which muſt contribute both to the honour of the nation, and the progreſs of literature.

Eſſays, ancient papers, natural productions, or other literary communications, may be tranſmitted to Mr James Cummyng, ſecretary to the Society, at the Muſæum, Edinburgh; and to Mr Alexander Donaldſon, the Society's bookſeller in London."

The Royal Society of Edinburgh, eſtabliſhed, by his Majeſty's charter, for the advancement of learning and uſeful knowledge, met on Monday, June 23. in the library of the Univerſity of Edinburgh, in terms of this charter of incorporation, and formed a body of laws for regulating their future proceedings. They then aſſumed into their number the members of the Univerſity of Edinburgh, and of the Philoſophical Society of Edinburgh, elected ſeveral new members, and appointed the next general meeting to be held on Monday the 4th of Auguſt next, when the preſidencies, council, and other offices of the Society, are to be filled up.

The Society accordingly met upon the day appointed, and made choice of the following noblemen and gentlemen as officers for the enſuing year, viz. Duke of Buccleugh, Preſident; Lord Advocate (Mr Dundas), and Lord Juſtice-Clerk, Vice-Preſidents; Mr John Robiſon, profeſſor of natural philoſophy, Secretary; Mr Alexander Keith, writer to the ſignet, Treaſurer; Mr Baron Gordon, Lord Elliock, Maj. Gen. Fletcher-Campbell, Adam Smith, Eſq; Mr John Maclaurin, Dr Adam Ferguſon, Dr Monro, Dr Hope, Dr Black, Dr Hutton, Profeſſor Dugald Stewart, and Mr John Playfair, Counſel.

The following advertiſement appeared in the Edinburgh papers of Auguſt 6.

"*Cuſtom-houſe, Edinburgh, Aug.* 6. Whereas, by an act 22d. Geo. III. c. 73. permitting the uſe and removal of tobacco, the growth of Scotland, into England, for a limited time, under certain reſtrictions; the like duties are to be paid for ſuch tobacco as were due and payable upon the importation of ſuch tobacco, of the growth and produce of the Britiſh colonies or plantations in America:—And *whereas*, by another act paſſed laſt ſeſſion of parliament, c. 75. reciting the act firſt above-mentioned, it is ſet forth, That in the ſaid recited act, no proviſion is made for granting any relief to the proprietors of ſuch tobacco, in conſideration of the inferior quality thereof, or any accident or defect that may happen in the growth or culture of ſuch tobacco, ſo as to render the ſame not marketable, or worth the duties

duties impoſed thereon: For remedy whereof, it is enacted, That it ſhall and may be lawful to and for the Commiſſioners of his Majeſty's Cuſtoms at Edinburgh, or any three or more of them, to allow, and order to be paid, to the owner or proprietor of ſuch tobacco, out of any revenue under their management which is applicable to the payment of incidents, at the rate of four pence for every pound weight of ſuch tobacco, for which the owner or proprietor thereof ſhall refuſe to pay the full duties impoſed by the ſaid recited act, provided ſuch tobacco ſhall be given up by him to the proper officers of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, to be publicly burnt, or otherwiſe totally deſtroyed by ſuch officers. The Commiſſioners of his Majeſty's Cuſtoms give this public intimation of the aforegoing directions of the law, declaring, That if any ſuch tobacco as aforementioned ſhall not be given up to the proper officers of the cuſtoms for payment of the foreſaid allowance of four pence the pound, on or before the 6th of September next, they will proceed againſt the perſons concerned, to recover the full duties due thereon.

By order of the Commiſſioners,

R. E. PHILIPS, Sec.

In conſequence of the advertiſement conſiderable quantities of tobacco have been delivered up and burnt, in terms of the above-recited acts.

On Wedneſday July 2. in the town-council of Edinburgh, Mr Hunter-Blair moved, that the thanks of the Lord Provoſt, Magiſtrates, and council of the city of Edinburgh, be tranſmitted to Sir Adam Ferguſſon, Bt, for his ſpirited and ſucceſsful efforts for the intereſts and privileges of the medical department of the univerſity of Edinburgh, in the Houſe of Commons on the 26th June laſt, where a clauſe, prejudicial to theſe intereſts and privileges, was propoſed in one of the tax-bills.

He alſo moved, that Sir Adam ſhould be preſented with the freedom of the city; which motions were unanimouſly agreed to.

The Principal and Profeſſors of the univerſity of Edinburgh, met at their hall in the college, July 2. unanimouſly reſolved to tranſmit the following letter to Sir Adam Ferguſſon, Bt.

SIR, *July 5.*

IN a meeting of the SENATUS ACADEMICUS held this day, it was unanimouſly reſolved, in conſequence of a motion originating in the Faculty of Medicine, That public thanks ſhould be returned to you, for your obliging attention to the honour and intereſt of the Univerſity, when the bill, with reſpect to vending of medicines, was lately under conſideration in the Houſe of Commons.

By that bill, in its original form, a very illiberal diſtinction was attempted to be made between the univerſities of England and thoſe in this country; and a moſt eſſential and unmerited injury would have been done to the ſchool of medicine here, if both had not been prevented by your ſpirited and effectual interpoſition. It is with peculiar ſatisfaction, that the Univerſity reflects on being indebted for this obligation to an *Alumnus*, whoſe public as well as private conduct has done ſo much honour to the place of his education.

The *Senatus Academicus* has unanimouſly conferred upon you the degree of Doctor of Laws, which we requeſt you to accept, as a teſtimony of our reſpect and gratitude. I am happy, in executing the commands of my colleagues, to have this opportunity of expreſſing the perfect regard with which I have the honour to be, &c. WILLIAM ROBERTSON.

In conſequence of his Majeſty's order in council reſpecting the plague [p. 388.], ſeveral ſhips which arrived in the frith of Forth from Dantzick, &c. with grain, were ordered to Inverkeithing bay to perform quarantine. Upon application however, of ſeveral merchants, ſetting forth, that the grain would heat by lying ſo long on ſhip board, and thereby be totally loſt, and that there was very little danger of its communicating the plague, the magiſtrates of Edinburgh ſent off an expreſs to Lord North, ſecretary of ſtate, with a letter requeſting leave to land the cargoes. This requeſt was readily complied with, and the market was ſoon ſupplied with an additional quantity of grain, which conſiderably reduced the prices.

On the 8th of Auguſt, the remaining eſtates belonging to the York buildings Company, were ſold in the parliament houſe, agreeable to former advertiſements, in the following lots: Lot 1. being the baronies of Callendar and Falkirk, was expoſed at the ſum of 30,708 l. 5 s. 3 d. Sterl. and was purchaſed by Mr William

William Forbes of London for 66,500l. Sterling. Lot. 2. being the baronies of Almon or Haining, was set up at 8179l. 5s. 3¼d. and purchased by the same gentleman for 16,600l. Sterling. Lot. 3. being the superiorities, feu and teind duties in the barony of Slamanan, was exposed at 303l. 9s. 7d. and went off at 1410l. Sterling. Lot 4. being the superiorities, &c. of the barony of Ogilface, was set up at 281l. 11s. 3d. and sold for 1350l. Sterling. Lot. 5. being the feu and teind duties of Carmelite Friars, and town of Linlithgow, was exposed at 79l. 5s. 7½d. and went off at 250l. Sterling. Lot. 6. being the estates of Fingask and Kinnaird, was purchased by Sir Stewart Threipland, physician in Edinburgh, heir of the family, at the upset price, being 12,007l. 18s. 4d. Sterling. Lot 7. being the lands of Clerkhill, was set up at 2520l. and purchased for the Merchant Maiden hospital of Edinburgh, at 3700l. Sterling. Lot 8. being the lands of Downieshill, was set up at 718l. 4s. 5d. and purchased by Dr Livingston of Aberdeen, the heir of the family, at 720l. Sterling.

Total price at which they sold,	102,537	18	4
The total upset prices amounted to,	L. 54,786	19	9
Difference,	L. 47,750	18	7

MARRIAGES.

At Quebec, Capt. Colin Campbell, of the 84th reg. to Miss Johnson, eldest daughter of Col. Guy Johnston, and neice of Sir John Johnson, Bt.

Aug. 9. At London, the Earl of Eglintoune, to Miss Twysden, daughter of the late Sir William Twysden, Bt. of Roydon-hall, in Kent.

18. Capt. Wilson, of the artillery, to Miss Whyte, youngest daughter of the late Dr Whyte of Bennochie.

21. At Northallerton, Mr George Lumley aged 104, to Miss Dunning, aged 19, both of that place.

BIRTHS.

Aug. 5. At Edinburgh, the Lady of Sir James Grant of Grant, of a son.

Windsor-Castle, Aug. 7. This morning, at a quarter before one o'clock, the Queen was happily delivered of a Princess. *Lond. gaz.*

DEATHS.

May 9. At Bassora, in Persia, on his way home from India, Capt. William Ogilvie, in the East-India Company's service, and son to Mr Ogilvie merchant in Banff.

July 17. At Aberdeen, Mrs Agnes Keith, only child of the deceased James Keith of Keithfield, and relict of John Mowat of Balquholly, Esq; This Lady's father was the male representative of the Marischal family; but dying without male issue, the representation goes in a remoter line.

22. At the manse of Crathie, Mr Murdoch Maclennan, minister of that parish, in the 82d year of his age, and 50th of his ministry.

28. At Edinburgh, William Cochran of Newton, Esq;

Aug. 1. At London, Lord Visc. Hereford, premier Viscount of England. He is succeeded in titles and estate by his only brother the Hon. George Devereux.

1. At Dundee, Mrs Elizabeth Johnston, widow of Mr John Ferrier minister at Largo.

2. At Montrose, Capt. Charles Forbes, late of the 22d reg. of foot.

3. Dr Price, of Guildford, well known by his experiments on mercury, silver, and gold. [vol. 44. p. 533]

3. At Dumfries, Mrs Hynd of Drumcoltran.

3. Mr Thomas Clark minister of Eaglesham.

4. At Musselburgh, Mr Archibald Scott, surgeon, in the 84th year of his age.

7. At Gardener's Hall, near Edinburgh, Mrs Jane Macaulay, relict of William Fraser of Belnain, Esq; writer to the signet.

10. At Elgin, Alexander Gordon of Whiteley, Esq; Advocate, sheriff-depute of Elgin and Nairn.

12. At Glasgow, Alexander Stewart, Esq; collector of excise.

18. At Oxford, Dr Benjamin Kennicot, canon of Christ-church, keeper of Ratcliff library, and vicar of Culham in Oxfordshire; a gentleman well known in the learned world for his elaborate edition of the Hebrew Bible, and other publications.

18. At Exmouth, John Dunning, Lord Ashburton, chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster. His Lordship is succeeded by his youngest but only surviving son, an infant of eleven months old.

22. At Bramham, Bedfordshire, Robert Visc. Hampden, Baron Trevor, in the 73d year of his age. He is succeeded in titles and estate by his eldest son Thomas.

27. At Glasgow, John Glasford of Dougalston, Esq; merchant in that city.

PREFERMENTS.

From the London Gazette.

The King has been pleased,

Aug. 19. to appoint Alleyne Fitz-Herbert, Esq; to be Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the court of Petersburg.

22. to confer the honour of Knighthood on Thomas Hyde Page, Esq; lieutenant in the corps of engineers.

23. to appoint the Hon. Henry Erskine to be his Majesty's Advocate for Scotland.

29. to appoint Edward Earl of Derby to be of the Privy Council.

29. to deliver the cuſtody of the ſeals of the duchy and county palatine of Lancaſter to Edward Earl of Derby.

From other papers.

Aug. 29. The High Court of Juſticiary met at Edinburgh to receive the Hon. Henry Erſkine as Lord Advocate for Scotland. His Lordſhip was received, and took the oaths accordingly.

The Lord Advocate has appointed the following gentlemen to be Advocate-Deputes, viz. Mr Alexander Ferguſſon, of Craigdarroch, Mr John Morthland, and Mr Robert Dalziel.

War-office, Aug. 5.

Maj. Alexander Roſs, of 45th foot, to be Deputy-Adjutant-General in North-Britain, with the rank of Lieutenant Colonel in the army.

War office, Aug. 9.

18th foot: Maj. Jeffery Amherſt, from 2d batt. of 60th foot, to be Major, vice Anthony Botet.

60th foot, 2d batt.: Maj Anthony Botet, from 10th foot, to be Major, vice Jeffery Amherſt.

56th foot: Maj the Hon. Vere Powlett, of 99th foot, to be Major, vice ſ. Fancourt.

99th foot: Capt. R. H. Buckeridge, of 82d foot, to be Major, vice the Hon. Vere Powlett.

82d foot: Maj. Thomas Goldie, of 8th dragoons, to be Lieutenant-Colonel, vice Enoch Macham.

War-office, Aug. 16.

99th foot: Maj. John Campbell, from half-pay in 96th foot, to be Major, vice Richard Henry Buckeridge.

9th foot; Maj. John Campbell, from 99th foot, to be Lieutenant-Colonel, vice John Hill.

War-office, Aug. 23.

70th foot; Col. John Earl of Suffolk, of 97th foot, to be Colonel, vice William Tryon.

Capt. Oliver Lambert, of 3d foot, William Cairnes, of 39th foot, to be Majors in the army by brevet, dated March 19, 1783.

Hon. Maj. Charles Cathcart, of 98th foot, (Lieutenant-Colonel in the Eaſt Indies), to be Quarter-Maſter-General to the forces in India.

Capt. John Grattan, of 100th foot, to be Adjutant-General to the forces in India.

Capt. John Grattan, of 100th foot, to be Major in the Eaſt-Indies only.

War-office, Aug. 26.

13th foot: Maj. Coppinger Moyle to be Lieutenant-Colonel, vice Andrew Edhouſe.

Capt. W. Thompſon of 68th foot, to be Major, vice C. Moyle.

Majors Alexander Robertſon, of 82d foot; Richard Downes, of 1ſt dragoon-guards; Robert Douglas, of 47th foot; William Barlow, of 12th foot; James Wemyſs, of 63d foot; James Mackenzie, of 73d foot, 1ſt batt.; Hamilton Maxwell, of 73d foot, 2d batt.; William Dancey, of 33d foot; Simon Fraſer, of 71ſt foot; James Stewart, of 68th foot; Hon. S. D. Strangways, of 20th foot; James Flint, of 25th foot, to be Lieutenant Colonels in the army.

Commiſſions ſigned by his Majeſty for the Army in Ireland.

14th dragoons: Maj William Richardſon of 104th foot, to be Major, vice Andrew Corbett, who exchanges.

Burials in the Grayfriars church-yard in Auguſt.

Males 24 } 42. Decreaſed 6.
Females 18 }

Age.			No	Diſeaſes, &c.	No
Under		2	12	Aged —	8
Between	2 &	5	6	Bowelhive —	2
	5 &	10	3	Childbed —	1
	10 &	20	2	Chincough —	2
	20 &	30	2	Conſumption —	9
	30 &	40	2	Dropſy —	1
	40 &	50	2	Fever —	4
	50 &	60	3	Meaſles —	4
	60 &	70	4	Smallpox —	3
	70 &	80	3	Stillborn —	2
	80 &	90	3	Suddenly —	2
	90 &	100	0	Teething —	3
				Water in the head	1

Prices of grain at Haddington, Sept. 12.

	Beſt.	*Second.*	*Third.*
Wheat,	21s. 0d.	18s. 0d.	15s. 0d.
Bear,	21s. 0d.	18s. 0d.	16s. 0d.
Oats,	16s. 6d.	14s. 6d.	12s. 0d.
Peaſe,	19s. 0d.	—s. 0d.	—s. 0d.

Edinburgh, Sept 16 1783. Oat-meal, 1s. 2d. Bear-meal, 9d. Peaſe-meal, 9d.

PRICES OF STOCKS, Auguſt 14.

Bank Stock, 127 1 half.
3 per cent. Red 64 3 8ths.
3 per cent. Conſ. 63 1 8th a 1 4th.
3 per cent. Scrip. 65 1 8th.
Long ann. 19 1 4th.
India Bonds 7 diſc.
Navy Bills 11 5 8ths.
Exchеq. Bills 3 diſc.
Omnium 3 4ths.
Lottery Tickets, 14l. 19s.

Aug. 28.

3 per cent. Red. 64 3 4ths.
3 per cent. Conſ. 63 1 half a 3 4ths
3 per cent Scrip. 65 1 half.
Long ann. 19 1 4th.
India Bonds 16 diſc.
Navy Bills 11 3 4ths.
Exchеq. Bills 4 diſc.
Omnium 1 1 4th.
Lottery Tickets, 14l. 19s.